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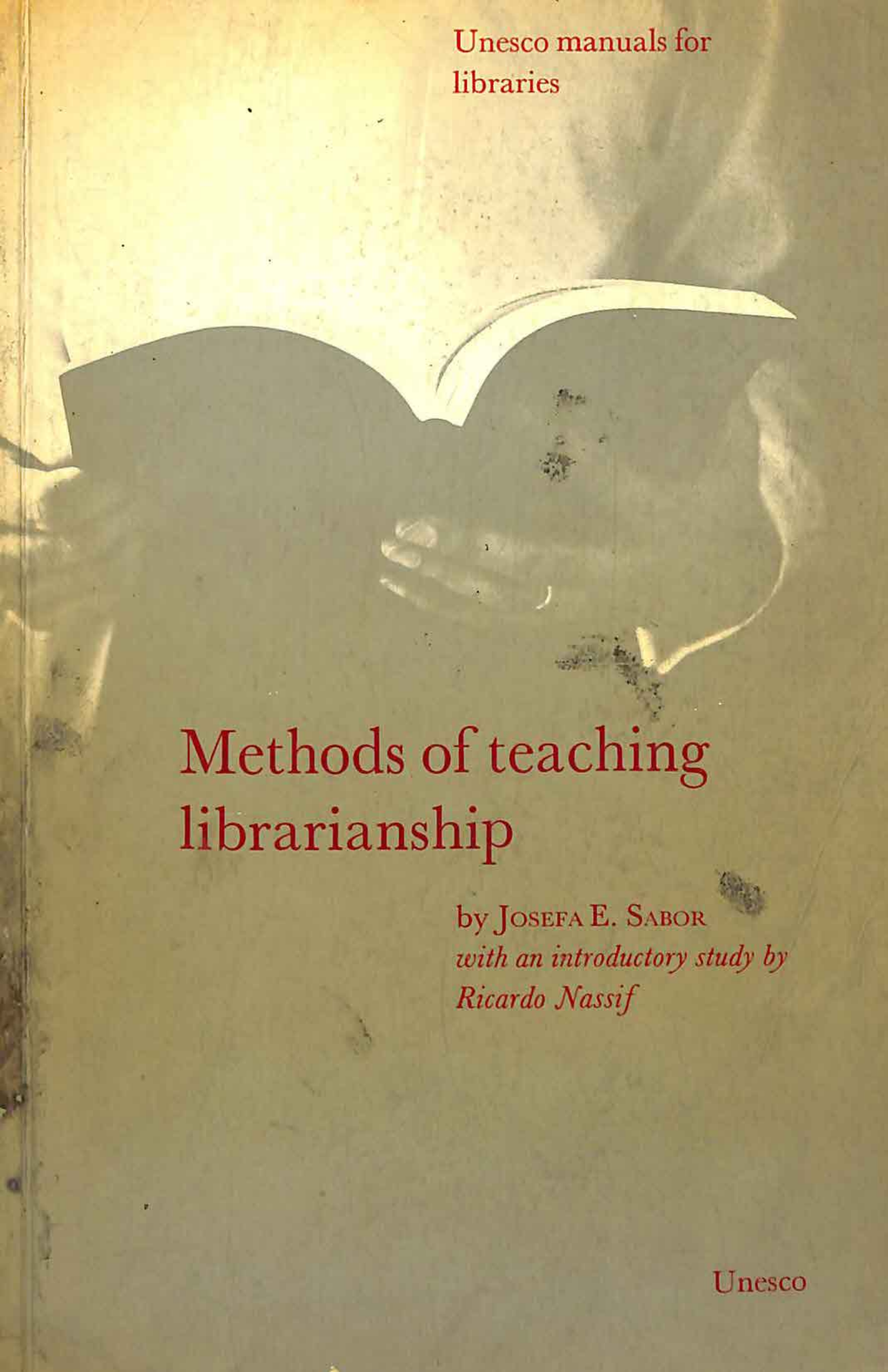

Methods of teaching librarianship

by Josefa E. Sabor
with an introductory study by Ricardo Nassif

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Methods of teaching librarianship

Josefa E. Sabor

With an introductory study by Ricardo Nassif

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Preface

The professional training of librarians raises a problem whose solution must be given the highest priority in any attempt to improve and extend library services in any category.

The shortage of adequately trained library staff can be seen not only in the developing, but also, though to a lesser extent, in the developed countries; unfortunately there are not enough schools to meet the growing demand for personnel, and the opening of new teaching institutions, like the qualitative improvement of existing ones, is hindered by the serious shortage of teachers. In general, the teaching staff in such schools consists of people who have acquired their knowledge through service in the various libraries. Despite their experience and ability, most of them have no proper training in teaching and this to some extent limits the quality of the instruction they impart.

The schools in question, especially in the developing countries, are beginning to give serious thought to the quality of their teaching and are working to improve their teaching facilities (libraries, laboratories, audio-visual materials, etc.), their curricular policy and content, and the efficiency of their teaching staff; they are also trying to make the instruction they impart conform to the norms obtaining in other schools in the same country or region.

Among all these aspects of qualitative improvement in professional training, the capability of the teaching staff is of capital importance. This manual, which provides a methodological guide to the teaching of librarianship for instructors already in service and for those who will have to undertake such functions later, aims at helping to solve the problem.

It reflects the experience of both librarians and educationists, and has been prepared by Ricardo Nassif of the University of La Plata (Argentina) and Josefa Emilia Sabor, Head of the Centre for Research in Librarianship at the

University of Buenos Aires (Argentina). It is hoped that it will provide those professors of librarianship who lack instruction in teaching methods with practical advice of service in preparing and conducting their courses on correct methodological lines—and that it will help to improve the instruction given to their students.

The opinions expressed in this work are those of the authors and not necessarily those of Unesco.

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Foreword

This manual is intended for countries where librarianship is undergoing a process of development. Wide experience enables me to assert that in such cases the task of rescuing the profession from stagnation and launching it into more ambitious projects is one for the library schools above all. Unfortunately, in almost all cases, the teaching, given by professional librarians full of goodwill and often of great knowledge and experience, is not backed by any acquaintance with teaching techniques. This, together with the changing content of librarianship, is the reason why there is no methodology for teaching the subject so that didactic procedures are borrowed from other disciplines and adapted with greater or lesser success to the requirements. It is sixteen years since J. Periam Danton published *Education for librarianship* (Unesco public library manuals, 1), an excellent book which every school should use. Despite the lapse of time, there is very little more to be said on methods for teaching librarianship. Even the country most active in this field, the United States of America, has not advanced much further, as may be seen from its constant reversion to the ideas of Charles C. Williamson, whose *Training for library service* has become a classic. It therefore seemed to me logical to ask an educationist of recognized authority to write the first section of this book and to discuss the methodology of the discipline. Professor Ricardo Nassif is a distinguished educator and a professor of the Universidad Nacional de La Plata (Argentina). His contribution is of great importance inasmuch as it puts the methodological problem on a sound and realistic plane without extravagances. With this support, I have sought to supplement my own experience as teacher and head of a school with the fruits of a vast amount of reading, long conversations with colleagues and visits to many library schools. When I could only repeat what Danton had said, I have elected not to do so, believing that a direct knowledge of his book is essential for anyone teaching librarianship. I have preferred to deal with the subjects treated less intensively and in particular to explain the limitations imposed on the traditional concepts by the ambience and working conditions in countries where library science is merely in process of development. Hence, I make no claim to formulate norms for anyone. My principal experience has been in Latin America and I am well aware that, despite all the unifying factors, it would be rash to claim that the same solutions are valid for all the twenty-two republics, much less for countries in other continents with different cultural backgrounds, different social and economic situations, and different characteristics. I do think, however, that these problems have common elements and this has impelled me to discuss them, emphasizing the need to know and, above all, to adapt the experience of countries with very lengthy librarianship traditions, as for example the United States, whose professional literature, although relating to a very different situation, is eminently thought-provoking, is full of ideas that can bear fruit in other climates and, above all, fulfils the essential requirement of constantly aiming at more distant goals.

Today, the chief dilemma for those concerned with these matters is whether or not documentation should figure as a subject in the teaching of library schools. As the collection of disciplines involved require the application of methods which are sometimes very different from the traditional methods of library schools (and for other reasons which I shall deal with as my work progresses), I have preferred to confine myself to those matters forming the traditional nucleus of library science.

Before concluding this introduction, I should like to mention a point which I consider crucial in the history of the common effort to improve the teaching of librarianship. I refer to the three round tables held in the Inter-American Library School of the University of Antioquía (Medellín, Colombia) between 1963 and 1965. The basic papers submitted and the conclusions reached in them are so important for Latin America that it would be expedient for other regions with countries where library science is in the developing stage to try to follow suit in order to establish solid foundations for the development and improvement of its teaching. If they did so, it would finally be possible, by a comparative study, to reach conclusions of incalculable scope. The present work owes much to the spirit and the decisions of these round tables and I have particularly borne in mind the declaration by the first of them that 'the librarian needs to have a rigorous academic training: his is a liberal profession of university level'. This methodology is, accordingly, addressed to university teachers.

I should like to express my thanks to Professor Ricardo Nassif for his valuable assistance; to the teachers of librarianship who prepared the examples, Mrs. Stella Maria Fernández de Vidal, Miss Raquel Robés Masses and Mr. Omar Lino Benítez; to my colleagues who provided me with bibliographies or read and commented on the original manuscript, especially Professors Lydia Revello, Roberto Juarroz and Nodier Lucio; and lastly, to all teachers of librarianship, without whose experience, worries, discouragements and hopes continually renewed, this book would have been even more modest.

JOSEFA E. SABOR

Essentials of pedagogics and methodology

Preliminary study for a pedagogics of librarianship

Ricardo Nassif

Introduction

This work has been not merely an interesting but an enriching experience for its author. It has been valuable intellectually for the systematization of a series of data and reflections on the little-elaborated theme of higher education and its pedagogics, hitherto dispersed among minor publications or figuring sporadically in the daily commerce of the lecture room. It has been fruitful from the personal point of view, since, for anyone involved in any fashion in cultural matters, contact with library science and those who pursue it represents a direct relationship with the sources and instruments through which ideas perpetuate themselves for future generations. And in this connexion there is a great resemblance between books and schools, librarians and educators.

It was not easy to conceive and carry out this task. The writer was acquainted with the general principles of education and pedagogics and to some extent was familiar with the specific principles relating to higher education. The difficulty lay in projecting them coherently on to a cultural and professional field with which he had only a superficial acquaintance. Applying the categories of pedagogics to the concrete process of librarianship training accordingly involved the risk of sacrificing the reality to schemata or of retaining a prejudicial hiatus between pedagogic theory and a highly idiosyncratic form of teaching practice.

At no time did the publishers of this volume demand anything more than the ordering of basic educational concepts for the purposes of a purely preparatory study. However, considerations of intellectual honesty showed the writer that even within the limits of his strict obligations, the task required at least an approximate presentation of the objectives of training for librarianship. Having made the attempt to the best of his ability, he can only hope that experts in library science will not be unduly critical of his brief incursions into that field. His sole purpose has been to provide the minimal concrete elements needed to situate or localize the pedagogic and didactic systematization here offered, from concern lest it seem wholly unconnected with anything real.

To preserve the work's introductory character, it begins with the primary concepts of educational sciences so as to establish education for librarianship as a particular line and organization of instruction at a specific level of human education. Hence the first chapter, entitled perhaps a little pompously 'Education, pedagogics and the pedagogics of librarianship'.

The next chapter 'Methodology of teaching', which is more directly related to the theme assigned to the writer, merely develops the essential concepts operative in the organization of teaching in the broadest sense. 'Didactic structures in higher education', the third chapter, seeks to present a picture of the didactic forms and techniques appropriate to this level, and to consider its functional character and possibilities in the context of a modern pedagogical conception of the university. As implied, the work refers continually to higher education, inasmuch as it starts by accepting that that is the level currently appropriate to education for librarianship.[1]

In its modest scope and simple formulations this paper seeks merely to contribute to the development of a specific methodology for education for librarianship. It is perhaps no justification, but may serve as an explanation, to emphasize that it goes no further than the threshold of a system of pedagogics for librarianship which will have to be evolved by those whose vocation and professional duty call them to labour in this field and who therewith have the capacity to attain to knowledge of the theory and technology of education.

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[1] The expressions 'education for librarianship' and 'library science' are used in this work to acknowledge the fact that there are two levels of training and activity within a single cultural and vocational domain. One level is technical in nature (work in libraries) and the other scientific (library science). The first-level objective is the training of librarians and their auxiliaries, comprising all the functions and responsibilities which that task implies. The second-level purpose is to turn out a professional man whose sphere is the science of books and libraries, and who is equipped to tackle the subject with penetration and originality and to grasp it in the context of its connexions with the totality of human culture. In their early days the library schools could not permit themselves the luxury of envisaging two levels in as far as their effort was focused on the training of personnel for the gradual replacement of those doing the job by rule of thumb and the light of nature. However, the time has come (hastened by the very growth of library science as a discipline) to extend the field of the profession and recognize the increased complexity of the knowledge and techniques involved. The time has come to promote library education to the sphere of higher education and, adopting the spirit of that education, to push the training beyond the purely technical line into the realm of science and research. That, and no other, is the territory of the highly qualified librarian.

Education, pedagogics and the pedagogics of librarianship

HUMAN VALUE OF EDUCATION

'Only through education does a man become a man.' These words of Kant[1] express simply and forcibly the value of education for the development of the specifically human attributes that distinguish man from the other beings and manifestations of the universe.

Every age has recognized the value of education. It has existed as long as man himself, since from its earliest beginnings society has had to transmit or cultivate knowledge and skills, rules of conduct, usages and customs. Education has thus kept pace with mankind throughout the complex history of the race.

The importance of education has been increasingly recognized with the passage of the centuries. Today, no one, whatever his cultural level or social position, can hope to shape and improve the lives of himself and his kind without the help of education. For this reason, questions which relate to education preoccupy everyone in some way or other and education presents itself not only as a means of individual betterment and spiritual and cultural enrichment, but also as a powerful instrument of social and economic development.

But it is not enough to recognize the individual and social value of education. For this recognition to lead to anything, there must also be a willingness to study education and to take up the scientific and professional responsibilities it represents.

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[1] In his essay *Über Pädagogik*, published in 1804, based on notes taken in the classes on the subject which the philologist gave in the University of Königsberg.

To begin with, education was a diffuse function of societies until the growing complexity of cultures and the sub-division of labour compelled the concentration of educational work in scholastic institutions.

At the start teaching was purely empirical and intuitive and some time had to pass before it could arm itself with theoretical principles of its own (philosophic and scientific) and with consciously planned methods. The progress of the pedagogical disciplines served to give educational systems surer foundations and enhanced prestige in the community. Nowadays no form of education is conceivable without a thorough knowledge of its nature, aims, protagonists, methods and resources. This is particularly true for the educators—school-teachers and professors—who are the professionals trained to make education the central activity of their existence. Otherwise, they would not be able to rise beyond routine and improvisation or to work for fuller concepts, able to enrich not only their actual teaching but also their own personalities.

EDUCATION AND PEDAGOGICS

The task of transmitting knowledge and experience and of moulding habits and behaviour came into existence with society itself. Educational thinking (first sporadic, and then systematic) came later.

Before any theorizing, reflection or planning, there has to be a reality about which to think or plan. This is the main difference between education as an actuality and the study and organization of education. Whatever the idea conceived of education and pedagogics, what is certain is that the former term covers a thoroughly concrete phenomenon and body of practice, while the latter embraces a combination of knowledge which interprets the phenomenon and norms which regulate the practice.

As with all sciences in their relation to reality, education is the subject matter of pedagogics, i.e., of the sciences and techniques of education.[1] These sciences and techniques have to respect the nature and structure of education in action and work out theories and methods appropriate to it.

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[1] The development of the concept of pedagogics as the theory and technique of education is discussed in R. Nassif, *Pedagogía general*, part II, Buenos Aires, Kapelusz, 1958.

COMPLEXITY OF EDUCATION

The techniques of education follow firm reflection and acquisition of knowledge about the educational situation, both of which start by the discovery that the world of education is a complex and problematic agglomerate.[1]

Merely by acknowledging education's transcendent importance for the individual and society we admit that it is a process difficult to interpret and carry out. Education is a work of men, of which men are at one and the same time, the originators, the interpreters and the beneficiaries. This 'humanness' as such invests the process with a great complexity, born of the very complexity of personal and social life. Moreover, through the domain of education a multitude of ideas circulate while innumerable ideals, factors, systems and methods impinge on it, all of which increase its complexity. To this is added the circumstance that education is a process of high social import, which explains the frequency with which it is a ground of ideological and political conflicts.

The complexity the writer has in mind is observable for example, in the primary problem which pedagogics set out to resolve—that of the notion of education. That it is no simple task to formulate a single notion of education is due to the fact that any such concept is always imposed by a particular conception of the world, life and mankind.

But even apart from differences in ideologies and beliefs, the difficulty arising from the complexity of the educational phenomenon subsists. It is almost impossible to hit on a notion of education which covers all the aspects and factors contained in the process and this explains why most of the definitions are incomplete or one-sided.

EDUCATION AND EDUCATIVE ACTION

Anyone who sets out to evolve some approximations to the notion of education will discover that it is primarily a reality, an acquisition, a possession of the individual and of society. Thus we say that an individual 'has got' or 'has not got' education, or that a people 'has a particular type of education and culture' which may suffice to define it.

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[1] On the 'problem-centred' nature of education, see J. Mantovani, *La educación y sus tres problemas*, 5th ed., Buenos Aires, El Ateneo, 1960 (Colección Cultura universal).

Nevertheless, education as a reality is shown forth, is given concrete expression in a series of acts and through the medium of a complicated system of influences, or particular forms of personal and community development.

In the light of this, education emerges as a more general term than educative action. The first comprehends the totality of the educational phenomenon as a human creation and process. The second is confined to education considered as a concrete activity which produces a particular type of individual and social development.

INFORMAL AND FORMAL EDUCATION

Examination of educative action reveals the existence of two types or forms: unsystematic (informal education) and systematic (formal education).[1]

The training of human beings is not effected exclusively by the action or conscious influence of a person or a group. Fortuitous and apparently non-didactive human contacts (fugitive encounters, friendship, love) or mere existence in a particular physical and social setting also contribute to the moulding and this circumstance is the bedrock of what is called informal education with its interplay of influences impinging on the subject without any deliberate educational purpose. It is informal because it does not follow any order or system; non-methodical because it does not conform to consciously worked-out methods; non-volitional because it does not intend to produce any educational effects; it is natural, spontaneous and reflexive. In it, the influences operate by irradiation or impregnation and in principle the interplay of influences occurs in every natural, social and cultural ambience.

Formal education, on the other hand, is identified by the deliberate will or intent to educate and by a human relationship structured for this purpose. This form of education is therefore methodical, conscious, intentional, planned and artificial and the school, though not the only type of educational relationship, is the most typical example of it and its specific organ.

Every human being is subject to these two influences and, although they may conflict in some cases, they are always simultaneous. Before,

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[1] See J. Dewey, *Democracy and education, an introduction to the philosophy of education*, New York, Macmillan, 1950.

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during and after schooling we are exposed to the diffuse influence of the community and of interpersonal relations. The task of every school is precisely to avoid conflict between the two influences and to integrate them in our personality.

HETEROEDUCATION AND AUTOEDUCATION

In education, man is both subject and object. But education is a process of which the individual is only one part, the other consisting of environmental factors which influence the personality, deliberately or otherwise.

Thus education is a process resulting from the double play of individuality and objective environment, which has given rise to the theory that the process pursues not one, but two lines meeting at a single point.

One of these lines runs downwards from the educator or educating agency to the learner (education as influence). The other runs upwards from the learner to what the educator or educating agency represents, i.e., to the spiritual and cultural acquisitions and values (education as canalization of development).

Here we have two lines of approach in one and the same process whose meeting point—the trained or educated man—is where external influences and internal dispositions or abilities intersect. If we accept the reality of this dynamic, it is easy to conclude that if the individual is not entirely his own creation, neither does education make the whole man.

This confronts us with two other differential forms of education, with the distinction based not on the presence or absence of educational intent, but on the direction of the educational process—heteroeducation and autoeducation.

Heteroeducation (from the Greek *heteros* = other, i.e., education by another) is simply education as an external influence. Autoeducation (education by oneself), on the other hand, presupposes the will to train oneself and the consequent adaptation of stimuli or messages from outside to the laws of the individuality.

Whatever the form we consider, education emerges as a social and cultural process which tends or helps to make men increase and develop their personal potentialities (mental and physical). For this it relies on a system of influences and stimuli which is specially constructed for the purpose in the case of formal education.

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THE TWO DIMENSIONS OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

In so far as it is a formal process, education is organized socially and institutionally in systems of teaching establishments. Viewed from this angle, and for the purpose of investigating it, the process can be considered in two ways to reflect its two dimensions, longitudinally, or in vertical profile, and transversely in horizontal section.

The longitudinal dimension

The longitudinal section enables us to see the process of education as such, as a continuous progressive sequence in which each section is articulated with those immediately preceding and following it. The vertical movement of the process conforms to the pace firstly of development in the human being in search of personal maturity and secondly of the accommodation of his capabilities to the ever greater and more complex exigencies of culture.

Considered generally, the educational process unfolds in five stages, seriated in ascending order of amplitude and complexity—which does not, however, preclude the possibility of this taking place concurrently in the actual conduct of the process. These stages are: nurture, training, instruction, education proper and autoeducation. Nurture implies action directed to ensuring the biological survival of the entity; training seeks to develop mechanisms, habits and skills to ensure the subject's efficient mobility; instruction relates to the communication and assimilation of cultural knowledge and property (teaching and learning in the strict sense); through education the subject enters the world of values which give significance to what he has learned in the instructional stage; while autoeducation, as already indicated, reflects an autonomous will to education which, although it does not dispense with external contributions and stimuli, is nevertheless conducted in accordance with the rules of the subject himself. In this respect autoeducation is not only a stage in the general educative process, but is also a final objective *per se* of the whole process. Perhaps for this reason René Hubert remarked so cogently: 'Education is a wardship which aims at ceasing to be one'.[1]

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[1] R. Hubert, *Traité de pédagogie générale*, 4th ed. (revised by Gaston Mialaret), Paris, Presses Universitaires de France, 1959.

From the institutional standpoint, the verticality of the educational process is manifested in the progression in educational systems. Teaching establishments (from kindergarten to university level), inasmuch as they are specific organs of systematized education, follow the combined principles of organization plus gradation or progression. Pursuant to these principles, the educational process emerges as the gradual ascent of the person being educated towards cultural forms, elements and values whose assimilation will ensure his adequacy, personally, socially, or professionally, as the case may be.

It is for this reason that the scholastic system graduates the levels of knowledge and is organized in continuous didactic and educational cycles, structured in accordance with the necessities and interests of successive age groups and the exigencies of an ordered escalade of human culture.

The two elements instanced (age of the person being educated and content of instruction), in conjunction with the objectives to be attained, give the criteria for a definition of the major cycles of education. The classic divisions are into primary, intermediate and higher education. Increasingly, additions are the pre-school and post-graduate cycles and it is clear at a glance that, with their inclusion, the denominations of 'primary', 'intermediate' and 'higher' cease to be valid. However, the traditional terminology continues to be used.

The pre-school cycle takes children in the last years of the second phase of childhood (4 to 6 years) and aims merely at giving them some norms for the control of their primordial appetites. Its aim is to direct the children's activity by providing appropriate means of expression and assisting the process of socialization.

The primary cycle is taken in the third phase of childhood (ages 6 to 12). It imparts general, elementary knowledge which the child can use in order to cope with life.

The intermediate cycle is for adolescents (13 to 17). It covers a wide range of subjects, since adolescent education can follow many lines: general education leading to higher studies and various technical or professional branches (industry, commerce, teaching, art, etc.).

The higher cycle, generally organized in the universities, is primarily intended for young adults. At the university the matter to be learned is largely presented in problem form while concurrently the central element in the work of professors and students alike is personal inquiry.

The post-graduate cycle, with undefined limits, is still in process of consolidation. Its purpose is to train 'top-flight' specialists and researchers or to provide advanced training or refresher courses for university-qualified professional people. There is a definite bias towards specialization in both the higher cycle and the post-graduate cycle (which is also 'higher' education).[1]

The transverse dimension

While the vertical cut permits the identification of the levels of education, i.e., its stages and cycles, the horizontal section shows how the total structure of education splits into sectors which intersect or separate according to the levels of the process and the objectives sought. Thus, in terms of the objectives set and the subject-contents and activities involved in each case, education is divisible into intellectual, moral, physical, social, political, economic, etc., sectors, while in terms of orientations and again of subject-contents and their distribution, we get general sectors, such as general education and vocational education, and within the latter a more specific sector with bounds dictated by strictly delimited cultural fields (medical education, legal education, agricultural education, education for librarianship, etc.). If we consider method and forms of transmission, we shall certainly find sectors or types of education such as theoretical, practical, formal, material, etc.

As may be seen, the possible permutations in the transverse section are practically unlimited, especially if we consider the richness of the educational systems of today.

Unity of the educational system

Obviously the profiles of the educational process given above for the purpose of grasping the elements which it includes should not lead us to think that the vertical and horizontal dimensions can be kept separate. Every educational system is a single structure combining both aspects. Accordingly, in order to have a true and complete picture of the organization of the educational process, it is necessary, after analysing it, to reunite the elements. For this, it is enough to combine the two angles of vision when it will be seen how each sector, type or orientation is handled progressively (for example, aesthetic education takes special forms in primary schooling which differ from those likely to obtain in middle and higher education). We shall also see how each stage or cycle of the educational process comprises a variety of sectors, types or orientations (e.g., within middle education, general education and various types of vocational and technical education, and in higher education the lines of specialization studied at that level).

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[1] In point of fact, the post-graduate cycle is gradually becoming the higher level of the university cycle. Nevertheless, it is not taken exclusively in the university. Post-graduate studies can be carried out in the academies, professional colleges or in a multitude of institutions and of different forms of free scholastic establishment.

LEVEL AND TYPE OF LIBRARY EDUCATION

At this point we have to consider what is the type and level of library education, that is to say, of the training of librarians and library experts.

In the first place, library education is professional education, i.e., it is a specialized line of human training. Accordingly, it has a concrete content and concrete objectives, in the same way as the training taken by teachers, chemists, doctors, engineers or industrial technicians.

As a circumscribed sector of education, library education, in respect of its content and orientation, works primarily with elements from the domain of intellectual education, while also drawing on other aspects—social, moral, aesthetic. As regards its methodology, it combines procedural training with theoretics and practical instruction and also, after a fashion, formal education with the material handled.

As regards the proper level for library education, this has been fixed by the leaders of the library profession. Having regard to the importance of books in modern civilization, the advance of library science and the interdisciplinary character of its sphere of activity, and the value of libraries for the social and economic development of the nations, the predominant tendency today is to raise education for librarianship to the higher level. There are some dissenting opinions, but they are not numerous or influential. Schools of librarianship, according to the most modern criterion, should be university departments or at least of equivalent level.

This is made very clear by J. Periam Danton. In a positive compendium of library pedagogics he writes: 'In those countries which have had the longest history of education for librarianship and have progressed furthest, experience has demonstrated two major preliminary requirements in connexion with the establishment of library schools. The first of these is that a school should have a close relationship with, and preferably should be an integral part of, an established institution of higher education; the second is that a school should be located in close proximity to a number of good libraries of different sorts.'[1]

This view was emphasized at the round table on training and in-service training of librarians in Latin America held in Medellín (Colombia) in November 1963. The first recommendation of the round table said: '... schools of librarianship should be attached to universities, since they there find the cultural and academic standards and the teaching facilities they need for their development and progressive improvement.... It is to be desired that those which have not yet reached university standards should put forth every possible effort to achieve indices equivalent to those of the university schools. Having reached this level, it is advisable for them to become attached to some university'.

The level for education for librarianship is that of higher education. Within this field, however, there are sub-levels, corresponding to the various types and classes of professional functions, to the increasing cultural potentialities of library science, and to the extent of the knowledge and techniques from other disciplines on which they rely for support and progress. The seminar already mentioned established three levels (librarian, licentiate in library science, and at a future date, if the situation justifies it, doctor of library science). While separate 'infra-university' library schools do indeed exist, many universities, under various designations, run two-tier schools with a lower cycle for technicians and a higher for librarians of academic level.[2]

PEDAGOGICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND PEDAGOGICS OF LIBRARIANSHIP TRAINING

Recognition of the fact that the training of librarians is a form of education, a type and line of studies in its own right, is the starting point for devising a pedagogics of librarianship training. Since, in addition, we begin with the assumption that the right place for this training is at the 'higher education' level, the proper course is for librarianship pedagogics to form part of the pedagogics of higher education and share the latter's principles and techniques while simultaneously elaborating the techniques appropriate for its speciality.

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[1] J. P. Danton, *Education for librarianship*, p. 7, Paris, Unesco, 1949 (Unesco public library manuals, 1).

[2] This is the case, in the Argentine Republic, of librarianship courses, which come under the University of Buenos Aires and the Universidad Nacional de La Plata.

It will accordingly be useful to make some observations on the pedagogics of higher education (generally called 'university pedagogics') since the existence and validity of the latter are conditions for the existence and validity of the pedagogics of librarianship.

Investigation of the possibilities and foundations of university pedagogics must begin by accepting the fact that this system is still not adequately worked out and that the road to be travelled is long and difficult.

As a subject for study in itself the university offers a wide field for investigation. For making the study there is a great diversity of criteria, some of them already traditional and highly regarded. There are excellent analyses of the university from the historical, philosophical, sociological, economic and even political standpoints which are contributions of inestimable value for working out the theory and practice of higher education. However, if they are set against the strictly pedagogical studies of the university, the scarcity and, above all, the lack of system of the latter is striking. This is all the more surprising inasmuch as the university presents itself immediately to the mind as something which is pedagogic *par excellence*, and is defined as a centre of instruction and education.

There are various reasons for the inadequate development of university pedagogics, some of which can be determined with precision. The first obstacle seems to lie in the very essence of the pedagogical disciplines or, rather, in the problems which have arisen as those disciplines have taken shape over the years. Until very recently pedagogics was still rigidly tied down to its old etymological meaning of 'leading the child', and great though rewarding effort has gone to changing its sense little by little to 'principles and norms for the education of man'[1] throughout life and in the dual aspect of individual and member of the community. The step-by-step ascent towards wider territories has enabled pedagogics to attain to a maturity approaching that of other disciplines which deal with human existence in all its manifestations, especially cultural.

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[1] R. Nassif, Pedagogía universitaria y formación pedagógica del universitario, *Universidad* (Santa Fé, Argentina), vol. 40, 1959, p. 81-101.

In this way, in addition to a pedagogics of the community, we are witnessing the emergence of another pedagogics relating to the several stages of man's growth, which supplies ideas and norms for our guidance not only in the education of children, but also in the training of the adolescent, the young adult and the adult. In other words, parallel with the ascertainment and regulation of the educative impact of the social and cultural factors, there is a pedagogics relating to the successive cycles of formal education from the pre-school level to the university and higher level.

The second difficulty in the way of according pedagogics a leading role in the analysis and solution of questions of higher education usually arises in the university itself and takes the form of an 'anti-pedagogics' prejudice very common in academic circles, both in science and arts faculties. University professors—who have of course attained that position on the strength of their complete mastery of some domain of culture—consider that specialized knowledge alone is more than sufficient for teaching in higher establishments and that personality, erudition and experience obviate the need for didactic methods and pedagogical systems.

At first sight it is not easy to find objections to this argument. But a critical analysis of it immediately prompts the question of whether 'all' education, and especially higher education, is to be considered as a mere transmission of knowledge assembled and checked beforehand by a mind trained in science, humanities, arts or technology. If this is so—and even if it is not—it is obvious that nothing can replace the great personality which very often educates through the mere fact of contact with the students. But with this the argument refutes itself, since it tacitly admits that education is far more than mere transmission and training, a principle which every educationist asserts as the absolutely essential hypothesis for all his deductions. Moreover, in this case what matters is not solely the personality of the teacher, but also that of the student, which is the starting point for any formative operation.

The fact that it may now be necessary to alter the idea of method as an impersonal and rigid rule is no argument for the rejection of all method. Nothing can be taught without order and system and without knowing all the factors coming into play in the instructive process. The educator, whatever his level, operates in the context of a complex and comprehensive process. Why is it necessary in the university to forget this comprehensiveness and complexity with its call for penetration and clear thinking? In essence, the university is an educating community serving concrete ends and as such it stands in need of a rigorous examination from the pedagogical angle. It had its genesis in educational designs and these gave it a particular structure. It has formative and cultural objects, plans of study serving these objects, professors implementing the plans at the dual level of teaching and research and, above all, students who follow them. In other words, although it is all at a different logical and pedagogic level, we get the same elements as are studied by the sciences of education in the other scholastic cycles.

Modern university pedagogics or, more accurately, the studies on this subject, do not meet these requirements. University pedagogics has so far been empirical or intuitive, except in respect of the major objectives, a realm in which it reaches the borders of a sociology and philosophy of the university. The university pedagogics it is desired to establish is scientific and systematic and wide enough to fit the manifold aspects and elements of higher educational establishments into educational categories devised in the light of knowledge.

In conjunction with the teleology of the university, pedagogics must seek out the university realities and the instruments which will enable it to tackle those realities objectively. The university pedagogist will therefore find himself so placed that he must make exhaustive studies not only of the purposes and functions of the university, but also of the systems of the university organization, the research-linked teaching structuration, the co-ordination of the programmes and their place in experimentally devised and developed plans, the means of knowing the students and determining the conditions conducive to their all-round education plus the specific university level teaching methods which, while respecting the psychological make-up of the student, will allow free play to the developed personalities of the professors. And should it be necessary to add themes imposed by the age, it will be impossible to omit the theme of the discharge of the university's educational and pedagogic duties towards the society in which and by which it lives.

In the execution of his assignment, the university pedagogist will encounter yet another obstacle difficult to overcome, namely, the highly differentiated and specialized nature of higher studies. Here the only solution is to avoid methodological purism and focus pedagogical thinking on the point of intersection of the 'general education' line of action and the idiosyncratic lines of the diverse cultural subject combinations co-existing in the university.

THE THEMES OF THE PEDAGOGICS OF LIBRARIANSHIP

If the pedagogics of librarianship is regarded as the rationale and technology of librarianship training and if this training is at the level of higher education, then such pedagogics is evidently a branch of university pedagogics. It shares with the latter the principles and general systems of organization and teaching obtaining in the university as a whole. But in so far as it relates to a special cultural and professional field, it must apply and develop the theme-list of university and equivalent pedagogics along a specific line.

Admittedly that theme-list is of very ample scope and has been set out after a fashion in the previous section.[1] For the purposes of librarianship pedagogics, it adopts the following special forms and formulations:

1. Concept, aims and functions of education for librarianship.
2. Levels of education for librarianship.
3. Systems and institutions for library training.
4. Curricula and syllabuses suitable for this training.
5. Methodology of librarianship teaching, in the light of the objectives of the twofold theoretical and technical instruction.
6. Forms of learning in librarianship studies.
7. Yield evaluation systems. The promotion of pupils.
8. Non-library subjects in education for librarianship. Problem of general education in connexion with the librarian's profession.
9. Recruitment and training of teaching staff.
10. Student recruitment. The questions of educational and vocational guidance in schools of librarianship.
11. Action of library training centres in the further training and re-training of serving librarians. Post-graduate courses.
12. Library training centres' contribution to education at other levels and to popular culture and means available for the purpose.

The above theme-list is by no means exhaustive, and merely provides a rough outline of the main possibilities which cannot be explored in an individual work. Establishing a pedagogics of librarianship training is a team task. An appreciation of the need for it contributes to a large extent to increasing the importance and raising the status of education for librarianship.

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[1] In the work quoted earlier, Danton works out a fairly complete subject list of library education pedagogics.

Methodology of teaching

EDUCATION AND METHOD

Of the many themes covered by general pedagogics this chapter will deal with methodology, considering it first in its broad aspects and categories and ending with some reflections on the problem in higher education. The chapter will accordingly be in two sections: general educational methodology and the methodology of higher education.

The first requirement is to clarify a few terminological points so that we can consider the matter correctly.

The problem of method is one arising in the sphere of formal education. As already pointed out, being methodical, that is to say, following specific procedures and paths to attain its objectives, is precisely what characterizes this type of education. But this should not lead us into the error of thinking that method is all there is to education. Education presents a variety of problems, some of them fundamental (purposes of education, concept of education, etc.) and others derived (problems of content, organization, method, financing, etc). Method is a problem deriving from the fundamental questions of education and accordingly belongs in technological pedagogics in so far as it is manifested in a great variety of techniques and procedures subserving the process of educating. Nevertheless it is susceptible of theoretical treatment in respect of all that relates to its principles and foundations.

EDUCATIONAL METHOD AND SCIENTIFIC METHOD

Education is not only method and is not effected solely on the basis of method. But method in education presents an individual characteristic distinguishing it from method in science and philosophy.

The scientific or philosophic method is essentially a method of seeking knowledge, proving its truth and even producing new cultural elements.

On the other hand, educational method is, *par excellence* and by definition, an operative method validated by the fact of communication and effective training. The educational method shares its 'active' characteristic with the methodology of all human activities (for instance, art) but is distinguished from them by the objectives it pursues (e.g., not, as with art, the creation of beautiful forms, but the education of the individual and society).

The difference between the investigating method and the educational method reflects the basic difference between direct cultural creation and education. The former implies a form of work issuing in the creation by an individual of new values in things and ideas. Education on the other hand follows the reverse path; it acts on and influences the individual to the end that he may grasp the significance and structure of the subject-content and riches of culture. Although the educational relationship, intentionally or not, is a creative relationship, the educating act always consists in influencing or guiding the pupil towards prevailing cultural and social forms. The most education can do, in its higher stages, is to rouse the human creative capacity which will be evinced according to the individual's potentialities and the stimulus of the environment, but in so doing education will be acting as a direct creator of culture and not educationally.

A BRIEF HISTORICAL SURVEY

In order to understand the exact role of method in the educational process, it would seem useful to give a brief historical survey of its development.

It can be asserted that, as a problem,[1] the question of educational method antedates that of the objects of education. As far back as the seventeenth century it had been solved in the manner of that age, but our own age reopened the debate as a result of the extension of the very concept of education and the undoubted progress made in the pedagogical disciplines. Another reason which it is important to remember was the need to react against the exaggerated emphasis on method into which some schools of thought of the last century had fallen.

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[1] The reference is to the fact that the problem of method was posed at a very early stage. Not until Rousseau was the theme of the end of education thoroughly examined.

Be that as it may, the seventeenth century must always be given credit for having made educational method a fundamental concern and especially for having solved it in accordance with primarily educational criteria.

In earlier centuries there had been a wish for diversity of methods but they were all tied in with objects that were not necessarily educational or were merely transpositions of scientific and philosophical methodology. Examples are the exceptionally fruitful maieutic method of Socrates which, despite its educational character, was more a reflection of his philosophy, or the catechetical method used by the early Christians to disseminate their faith. The latter was and still is a teaching method, although conceived in terms of objectives not directly pedagogical.

The seventeenth century saw the transition from the method of inquiry to the method of instruction, as a result of the valuable contribution of the Moravian educationist Jan Amos Komensky (Comenius), following on from Vive, Montaigne and Ratke. Just as Francis Bacon and René Descartes shook up the world of science and philosophy with a new experimental and rational method, so Comenius shook the prevailing systems of instruction out of their routine. The influence of his conclusions was reflected first in language teaching and next in the teaching of practical subjects in a search for an order and seriation corresponding to the nature of things. This was the foundation of scientific didactics and modern education methodology.

Comenius was concerned basically with the things to be taught and how to make them accessible. For this purpose he elaborated a method which was simultaneously rational and natural. The eighteenth century followed the same line, but sought to get closer to the learner, as is shown by the 'psychological' methodology of Locke and Rousseau and of their nineteenth-century successors, Pestalozzi and Froebel.

The work of Herbart, straddling the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, issued in an over-insistence on method, to a tyranny and predominance of method evidenced less in Herbart than in his disciples (Ziller, Waitz, Rein and Stoy).

Herbartianism's over-emphasis on method is repeated in positivism. However, eagerness to resist both movements has prevented the perception, in its totality, of the richness of their contribution to the science of education. The exaggeration of the role of method induced by Herbartianism and positivism was based more on their assertions and value judgements than on the psychological, sociological and cultural arguments which today, with improved media of knowledge, have followed different directions to less hide-bound conclusions. With more refined criteria and resources, modern pedagogics has assigned method its true place, on other grounds and with a different, far more comprehensive concept of education.

'METHODISM' AND 'ANTI-METHODISM'

Above are outlined the two extreme positions which it is possible to adopt towards educational method: one affirming that it is the substantial element of the educational situation and operation (methodism) and the other denying its value, to the point of considering it unnecessary (anti-methodism).

However, these attitudes are more notional and terminological than practical, because the so-called 'methodists' cannot, without gainsaying themselves, make method the sole ingredient in the educational process, nor can the 'anti-methodists' reject it so absolutely. It is more a matter of different conceptions of method, and of its place in the whole educational complex, than of assertions or denials with some foothold in reality.

Before discussing methodism and anti-methodism, a word needs to be said about different types of method. Of these the rational and generally applicable type predominates in the first school, and methods adapted to the individualities of teachers and pupils in the second. The realities of the educational situation will inevitably give an individual cast to the 'rational and generally applicable methods', and if they are valid, they will help to project the teacher's personality, preserving him from pure routine and repetition. This is what Hermann Nohl means when he says that the action of the educator is a balanced combination of 'interplay and method'. Through the interplay he achieves live and personal, fleeting yet fertile contact; by method, what is momentary and apparently transitory is made permanent and ultimately bears fruit in solid intellectual foundations.[1]

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[1] H. Nohl, *Teoría de la educación* (translated by L. Luzuriaga), chap. VI, para. 6, Buenos Aires, Losada, 1952.

ARGUMENTS FOR THE INTERPRETATION OF 'EDUCATIONAL METHOD' IN BROAD TERMS

Schmieder has defined educational method as the assembly and synthesis of educational measures based on clear, proven and full psychological data and logical laws and which, applied artistically by individuals, lead directly to the predetermined objective.[1] This concept contains the fundamental elements of method: the 'logical' (any method must be coherent and respect the laws of thought); the 'psychological' (it must be based on psychological data); the 'economic-didactic' (any method must be economical of effort, effective and as direct as possible); the 'aesthetic-ethical' (it must be applied with artistry); and the 'individual' (fitted to the personality of the educator which in some sort it expresses).

Another interesting concept of method, more dynamic and functional than the above, is that of John Dewey, that method is the order of the development of the pupil's capacities and interests.[2] This notion of method is quite distinct from that of Schmieder but does not conflict with it; it is merely built on other foundations. While Schmeider starts from the action of the educator, Dewey bases himself on the capabilities and interests of the pupil, to make method a regulating force for formative work which does not annul the personal and intellectual qualities which give it vigour. But if we agree that this regulating force of method has to be exerted on idiosyncratic and varying material, we are within a single pace of understanding that the ideal of a single method, perfect and immutable, lacks all substance. It is not given to the educator to use a single method but 'methods', channelling his efforts in the light of a diversity of considerations according to the nature of the soil he has to till and of the cultural and subject contents serving him for the task. And it is round this assumption, born of the marriage of science and educational experience, that the whole debate on method and its place in education must revolve.

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[1] A. Schmieder and J. Schmieder, *Didáctica general* (translated by S. Duñaiturria), 4th ed., para. 15, II, Buenos Aires, Losada, 1953 (Biblioteca pedagógica, 6).

[2] Mi credo pedagógico, in: J. Dewey, *El niño y el programa escolar* (translated by L. Luzuriaga), Buenos Aires, Losada, 1957.

EDUCATIONAL METHOD AND DIDACTIC METHOD

Educational methodology includes all methods, procedures and techniques used by education to attain its objectives. On the other hand, didactic methodology refers to a single aspect of education or, if preferred, to one of its phases, the conjoined teaching-learning phase combined in the process of instruction.

Consequently the didactic method is a species within a genus which in this case is the educational method, a distinction which makes it possible to recognize that education has methods which are not didactic, methods of stimulation, practice methods, methods of guidance or orientation, corrective methods, etc.[1] The didactic (or instructive) method is one of many educational methods, from which it follows that didactics is only part of the ever widening methodology of education.

The word 'didactic' comes from the Greek *didaskein* meaning 'to teach'. In its classical or traditional sense it denotes the science and art of teaching, of the methods of instruction. This was the sense given it by Ratke who was the first to use it at the end of the seventeenth century. But since then the sphere and the notion of didactics have broadened considerably. While not denying its reference to methods of instruction, the renovated pedagogics of our own day prefer to say that didactics means the 'direction of learning', rather than the rigidly defined body of methods used by the school-teacher and the professor alike to impose on the pupil a certain body of knowledge, elaborated in advance without the participation of either teacher or taught, or imperfectly assimilated by them.

Didactic methodology has two main sectors; one dealing with the general principles of the instructive method and the conditions facilitating its application; and a special sector studying the specific methods for transmitting and assimilating the individual content of each subject or activity included in the curricula or appropriate to each level and type of education. This is why we talk of a didactics of primary education and a didactics of higher education founded respectively on the general pedagogics and educational methodology of each.

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[1] This enumeration of methods is by Santiago Hernández Ruiz and can be found in his book, written in collaboration with Domingo Tirado Benedí, *La ciencia de la educación*, Mexico, Atlante, 1940.

TEACHING, LEARNING AND METHOD

Defining the educational method in broad terms and including the didactic method within it has showed how it could be conceptualized from the points of view of the pupil and of the teacher respectively. Actually and substantially the definition is formulated from the standpoints of learning (pupil activity) and teaching (teacher activity).

In practical teaching work, neither of these activities proceeds in isolation; the two are complementary and correlative, the two poles, as it were, of a single process, that of instruction, which we have already identified as a phase in the comprehensive general educational process.

Instruction is thus a phase in education in its most universal sense. Its objective is the transmission and assimilation of knowledge, essentially at the intellectual and ideational level. For that reason instruction is the proper object of didactics, just as education is the special field of pedagogics.

'Instruction' includes the sub-processes of teaching and learning and moves between these two poles.

Teaching is also explainable by the word 'to show', in its broad sense. The teacher 'shows' (teaches) so that the pupil may 'apprehend'. Hence the definition of teaching as 'the normal form of cultural instruction, of the transmission of knowledge and the normal medium for inculcating habits, learning being the necessary complement in all these instances'.[1]

Learning is the act whereby the pupil assimilates the cultural elements 'taught' by the teacher. In the past 'learning' was equated with 'learning by heart', resulting in a complete methodology based solely on the capacity to retain knowledge. The progress of theory and of psychological studies of the learning process, in conjunction with an increasingly integrative notion of education and the educational relationship, substantially modified this view. This also meant changing the notion of the totality of the instructional process and the teaching sub-process.

Nowadays, learning is not understood as simply retention and repetition, but as the whole mental activity of which the pupil is capable in connexion with the handling and elaboration of the formative materials or subject-contents before him. Thus there is a 'learning' element in the planning and carrying out of experiments, in the direct or indirect observation of phenomena, in literature searching, in doing written work, in the discussion, formulation and solution of problems, in the search for, assembly and comparison of data and information, in individual or group practice or mutual correction exercises and even in practical work linked with the subject being learnt. In these activities given as examples, memory plays a much smaller part and a series of acts is involved in which reflection is the dominant element and memory, though irreplaceable, is no more than a tool.

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[1] S. Hernández Ruiz and D. T. Benedí, *La ciencia de la educación*, op. cit.

This change of line in the theory and practice of learning produces an about-turn as regards the meaning and function of teaching. Teaching ceases to be an action distinct from the action of learning, but integrates and combines with it as a planning, orienting and guiding factor in the pupils' concrete efforts with the formative subject-contents or materials. Teaching is no more than direction of the learning process and with this concept we return again to the notion of didactics, as expounded above.

From the foregoing a direct conclusion emerges about the didactic method. It is in the first place a method not only of teaching, but also of learning. A second clear conclusion is that teaching methods are any procedures making for effective learning, that is to say, development in the pupil of the mental habits which will enable him to cope adequately with the various situations in his life—personal and social as well as professional.

The importance of method for teaching and learning is indisputable. Starting from the assumption that the educational set-up is a whole governed by specific laws and with concrete objectives, it must be realized that the instructional material is not in itself any more than potential energy, incapable *per se* of setting off the learning process. Method actualizes the potential energy by setting the pupils' intellects in motion. Method orders the elements of education and makes it possible to discover their richness, opening up new horizons as regards their study and comprehension.

THE PROBLEM OF METHOD IN HIGHER EDUCATION

While so far the subject of methodology and didactics has been discussed in general terms, this has been done in order that all the principles enunciated may help towards a better understanding of the problem in the sphere of higher and university education.

The same difficulties already instanced as hampering the establishment of a coherent and systematic university pedagogics also impede the development of a university-level didactics. A natural consequence of denying the legitimacy of a university pedagogics is denial that there can be a didactic methodology in the university.

These denials will be valid and the difficulties conclusive if we produce university pedagogics and didactics which are manuals of rigid inviolable standards calculated to destroy the creative energy of university teachers and students alike and even the riches of the cultural treasures with which they are working. But something very different will happen if we modify our attitude and contrive to make suitable use in higher education of the essential elements of the contemporary didactic renewal, treating method as a principle of organization and order in teaching, on the one hand subserving a predetermined end or objective and on the other adapted to the educational process as it is developing.

Higher education accepts only the most elastic notion of teaching method. It is elastic in two respects: that higher education does not make it into a rigid form unrelated to the personality and capacity of the professor and to the individuality, maturity and interests of the students; and that it is not reduced to a mere general-purpose tool, but is regarded as a positive training element.

Consequently, the method is more than a mere formal procedure: it is a training element. In higher education—and it is important to emphasize this—the interest lies in the subject-contents imparted. Whatever the standpoint adopted with regard to the intrinsic value of the instructional subject-contents in the general educational process, it is certain that higher education cannot afford the luxury of treating these elements as mere means of developing the personal capacities of the student. These subject-contents must be given particular attention in their own right because it is by assimilating them that the student can master the instruments needed for work in a profession or for specialization in a particular sector of knowledge or of human activity. This is why university teaching methods cannot settle for the broad-spectrum approach, pedagogical or otherwise, nor for concentration on the consideration of education *per se* and in the general sense but must additionally adjust to the intrinsic laws, to the exigencies, of the actual subject being taught.

In other words, even when the legitimate development of university pedagogics may be leading to rediscovery of the individuality of the student and of the subjective elements operative in the educational process, this in no way invalidates the definition of the university professor as a 'technician' (in the sense of 'cognoscente' or 'expert') in a particular cultural field. Accordingly, from this standpoint too, the subject-contents of higher education must be determinants in the shaping of its special methodology, thus completing the framework of main characteristics which this methodology should present.

The considerations which should be regarded as fundamental for dealing with the question of method in higher education[1] are the following:

1. The university method must be designed with sufficient amplitude for it to be possible to regard it as a combined guiding principle for both the teaching and the learning activity.
2. It must be integral, seeking not only to instruct, but also to educate and mould the student and itself constitute a formative medium.
3. It must adjust to the nature and laws of the instructional and educative subject-contents, varying with the speciality.

Respect for these conditions means that at the university, the method followed cannot serve simply and solely for the transmission and 'regurgitation' of knowledge. This is first and foremost because the university is above all a centre for research and investigation of problems. Primary education imparts skills and cultural basics which equip the pupil to cope with life. Secondary education rounds off primary education and prepares the pupil for an occupation which, though not in the highest category, does permit some significant achievements. But neither of these levels presents knowledge in the form of problems nor do they offer pupils systematized knowledge, except in so far as active methods may affect systemization. In contrast to this, the university is characterized by a tendency to raise and discuss problems, which the maturity of the students makes possible and which is achieved through inquiry in common. The university sustains itself on the conjoined effort of professors and students and without this there is no university, another principle which should be taken as basic for working out the teaching methodology of higher education.

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[1] R. Nassif, *Docencia e investigación; bases para una metodología de la enseñanza superior*, Santa Fé, Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Departamento de Pedagogía Universitaria, 1961 (Estudios y trabajos, 5).

THE UNIVERSITY METHOD AND THE ONENESS OF TEACHING AND RESEARCH

This is a complex question, not to be resolved in the axiomatic manner to which this paper constrains the writer, because it links up with the question of the aims and functions of the university. A few words on this aspect are therefore needed.

The subject of the nature and aims of a university is highly controversial, and never more so than in this age of rapid change, immense technical and scientific development and predominance of social values. Nevertheless—and whatever standpoint we may adopt—we must realize that the university is structured internally with the simultaneous aims of teaching science, the humanities and technology at higher level and of developing creative capacity in those fields of human culture. It is also evident that the latter function seems to have lost ground under the pressure of the vocational training needs imposed by the growing professionalization of modern society.

The predominance of the vocational training aspect on the one hand and, on the other, the access of an ever increasing number of persons to higher education has enhanced the teaching function of the university, sometimes to an excessive degree. Speaking of universities in North America, Francis Millet Rogers advances an interpretation which, with very few exceptions, may be applied to all higher educational establishments and in particular those in Latin America. He says: 'The European tradition which the United States adopted requires that a university be a great research centre and that a professor be an authority in his subject matter, an author of articles, monographs, books—in other words, that he be a specialist. This tradition was reinforced by the great expansion of science and technology. The tradition is now, however, in conflict with the necessity of teaching, of teaching effectively. Not all of the 1,900 institutions of higher education can be research centres. They can all be centres of good teaching.'[1] That is the real situation of many university establishments, which thus fulfil one of the functions of a university, while the other is reduced to the minimum. The result is the critical lack of man-power in research, so clearly delineated by Kurganoff.[2]

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[1] F. M. Rogers, *Higher education in the United States*, 3rd ed., Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1960.

[2] V. Kurganoff, *La investigación científica* (translated by L. Bunodière de Lugones), Buenos Aires, EUDEBA, 1959 (Colección Cuadernos, 5).

Without discussing whether the reality coincides with everyone's ideal picture of the university, and starting from the assumption that this is a practical fact of university life, it is important to determine here, if possible, how the university teaching and research functions can be envisaged in reference to a specific methodology of higher education.

It is a fairly current belief that research and teaching are completely different tasks and that it is to the advantage of both that they be separated, since they call for conditions and dispositions which may even be regarded as antagonistic. In the writer's view, this argument has no foundation as regards higher education. If university teaching is definable as the presentation of subject matter in problem form, the least it presupposes is the re-elaboration and a critical analysis of the material, which must be within the capabilities not only of the professor but also of the student under the professor's encouragement and guidance.

Whatever its level, education is the communication or beaming of the experience and knowledge which a trained mind has accumulated, pioneered or elaborated to a mind in process of training. At the level of higher education, and at that level above all, teaching is the communication of hard-won knowledge, and the vehicle for the exposition of what has been achieved by the creative capacity of one or several individuals or one or several generations. Whereas the primary and secondary levels pass on scientific results and conclusions or introduce the pupil to the products of the arts and technologies, higher education goes much further. It does not restrict itself to giving only the conclusions of science but will aim at demonstrating how the scientist, the humanist or the artist has reached the conclusions or produced the works. That is what Sergei Hessen meant when he said that university teaching was not so much teaching in the strict sense as an exposition of the scientist's opinions . . . the essence of a university lesson consisting of the presentation of the sciences in the pre-crystallization state, the particularly instructive state in which the inquiry as such is adequately verbalized.[1]

No great effort is needed to grasp the importance of this proposition for elucidating the methodological problem in higher education. Through the lesson (its form is unimportant for our present purpose) the student makes contact with the life of scholarship and learns how to follow an independent course in that domain. In higher education the teaching recapitulates the processes which give birth to knowledge, doctrines or works. To put it better, the teaching becomes the means used by the professor so that the student may absorb for himself the method of creative work. Anything else would be mere 'instructing' and not training in the true sense. This is what the true nature of the university demands and, at the same time, what a changed attitude towards the student now calls for.

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[1] S. Hessen, *Fondamenti filosofici della pedagogia*, vol. 2, Rome, A. Armando, 1956.

It was pointed out earlier that university pedagogics is in the process of rediscovering or revalorizing youth. The university has to concede and assign the student an active role in his own training, and that training must parallel the forming of the knowledge, doctrines and works which are fruits of the spirit at its highest level. University teaching is a special manner or 'method' of training whereby the student relives the process through which cultural values and creations take shape. Looked at in this way, the teaching process loses its character of mere instruction to combine with the research process in a single channel and become active instruction or self-instruction.

Generally speaking, the university method takes the form of a synthesis of teaching and research, in which the research provides the basis for the teaching and the teaching is a running commentary on, or direct experience of, the research process. This conception of teaching at once enables us to adopt a definite attitude on the difficult problem posed by the unprecedented growth and diversification of culture. The volume and diversity of knowledge and specialities compel a rigorous selection of fundamentally and authentically formative elements. The impossibility of passing on the whole of present and nascent knowledge leaves no alternative but to train the student to acquire it for himself by developing his natural powers for working it out and assimilating it. In this sense the university teaching method can be conceded the character of a formative medium in its own right, in which we get the conjuncture and cross-fertilization of the teaching given in and by the research and the research proliferated or reinvigorated in the teaching.

The first step has been taken towards recognizing research as being in itself a training medium of the first order, or, what comes to the same thing, that the student really learns when he tackles, or shares in, creative work.

The marriage of teaching and research further offers an effective means of making higher education active, functional and progressive, and drawing the university into the pedagogic renaissance of the twentieth century. Moreover, based as it is on what is the very essence of higher education, it permits the professor to adopt a dynamic role in the process of his students' training, as a personality continually reanimated by the stimulus of the changing exigencies of youth and the ever fresh problems of his science.

Didactic structures in higher education

METHODS AND DIDACTIC FORMS

Hitherto the word 'method' has been used in its most generally accepted, and, let it be admitted, its least precise sense. The time has now come to define its meaning and to try to use it correctly, although there is much confusion in this matter, as witness the common use as synonyms of didactic 'method', 'procedure', 'techniques' and 'resources', without a thought for the critical examination of their true implications which is essential.

'Method' is a high-level term and cannot be used to describe a particular avenue of inquiry or communication, except in very rare and specific circumstances and conditions. In this connexion the words of Santiago Hernández Ruiz are unequivocal: 'There are only two methods or modes of reasoning, whether in seeking or in communicating truth: either we work up from the particular to the general, or we work down from the general to the particular; in other words, either we break down a whole into its parts, or we synthesize the parts into the whole. . . . Innumerable logical or ergological processes, pompously christened "method", are no more than particular instances of inductive or deductive, synthesizing or analytical processes.'[1]

From this standpoint—which the writer accepts unreservedly—the only true methods are induction and deduction, or analysis and synthesis. The teaching process operates essentially by these methods, and the manifold expedients employed are no more than teaching procedures and forms, following Ruiz in reserving the first term to signify exclusively the manner of setting about the actual programme of any activity and the second to signify the particular aspect or disposition of the teaching task. Starting from these premises, Ruiz attempts a classification of the procedures wholly or mainly assignable to each of the true methods. Observation, experimentation, comparison, abstraction and generalization are the typical inductive procedures; application, verification and demonstration are predominantly deductive; division and classification are analytical; inference, definition, summarization and recapitulation are synthetical. In addition to these 'regular' procedures, there are, from the standpoint of actual teachers, 'certain very widely usable mental procedures and pedagogical devices, which cannot be reduced even approximately to the logical sequence of investigation, acquisition and transmission of knowledge', as is the case with the active, verbal and intuitive procedures whose mutual equilibrium and correspondence ensure the efficacy of the teaching work. But in any event, teaching is hardly ever carried on by only one of the methods, but by all of them in combination, although it may resort to one or several procedures.

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[1] S. Hernández Ruiz (ed.), *Metodología general de la enseñanza*, vol. 2, chap. XIV, Mexico, UTEHA, 1949, 2 vols. UTEHA (Biblioteca UTECA. Clásicos y modernos de educación).

Strictly speaking, the methods are the trunk roads or main channels of the didactic action which is organized into separate phases or sections. It is in these phases or sections of the didactic method that the resources, techniques and procedures play their part. The resources are the items or media available for directing the learning process (texts, treatises, guides, maps, apparatus, etc.). The techniques, as defined by Alves Mattos, are 'rational ways of managing a phase or phases of the in-school learning process' (e.g., the motivation, performance assessment, group work, etc., techniques). Procedures, on the other hand, are 'segments or series of teaching operations in particular phases of education' (examples: procedures of interrogation, demonstration, explanation, correction, etc.). If we want to synthesize, we might say that the resources subserve the methods and related techniques and procedures, it being borne in mind that one technique may be applied with the aid of more than one didactic procedure.[1]

However, the explanations given are not sufficient. To meet requirements for the construction and subsequent comprehension of a didactics of higher education, it is necessary to go further into the matter in search of some common doctrine—even if hypothetical—which shall permit of a clear appreciation of the mode of functioning of methods, techniques and procedures at the educational level with which we are concerned.

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[1] L. Alves de Mattos, *Compendio de didáctica general* (translated by F. Campos), vol. III, chap. I and II, Buenos Aires, Kapelusz, 1960 (Biblioteca de cultura pedagógica, 77).

Perhaps the easiest category to handle is in this case that of didactic form or structure. Hernández Ruiz has already given us a good start with his indication of the word 'form' as the one best expressing the particular pattern of the teaching task. But if the scope of the term is not explained further, erroneous or inadequate interpretations may arise and probably the best way of amplifying the concept of didactic form is to treat it in the sense of didactic structure.

The teaching task is organized in a variety of 'forms', and its performance accordingly exhibits a variety of 'structures'. These structures are the several concrete modes adopted by the instructional process according to the place taken by the subject matter of the instruction, the teachers and the students. The concept of didactic 'form' or 'structure' thus acquires a judicious amplitude so as to include the didactic techniques and procedures closely linked with the methods subserved. In other words, any didactic form presupposes or creates a particular structure, which 'adjusts or disposes itself conformably to the educational level at which it is being applied, the general and particular objectives pursued, the qualities of those teaching, the capabilities and potentialities of those learning, and the nature of the formative subject matter on which they are working'.

For this reason there may be an infinite variety of didactic forms and structures. Karl Stöcker[1] has attempted an interesting classification of typical didactic forms according to two criteria: (a) the one who 'carries the load' in the teaching or the manner of distributing the activity between teacher and pupils, in connexion with new instructional content; (b) the structuration of the material or subject-content.

As regards the first criterion, the lessons may be conducted by the teacher directly (direct teaching) or indirectly (indirect teaching). For each of these types of teaching there are characteristic structures or forms. For direct teaching the forms or structures are expository (discourse, narration, exhibition, demonstration) and elaborative (didactic and instructive conversation, question and answer (directed) and stimulus-response (free)). In indirect teaching the distinction between the forms is in terms of the content of the task set (primary creation (production) and secondary creation (development and practice)); of whether the task is personal or social in nature (individual work and group work); and of the locale of performance (work in or out of the classrooms).

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[1] K. Stöcker, *Principios de didáctica moderna* (translated by J. J. Thomas), chap. III, Buenos Aires, Kapelusz, 1960 (Biblioteca de cultura pedagógica).

If we take the criterion of subject matter structuration, the didactic forms reflect the mode under which the object of instruction is studied: in its real physical content (didactic form: observation), by reproduction (explanation), by representation (representation) or by reasoning (development). In this classification proposed by Eggersdorfer, the sole point of reference is the theme or object of instruction. It is accordingly advisable to supplement it with another classification taking into account the mode of work *per se*, independently of the pupils, and Stöcker chooses Schreibner's classification which distinguishes work with visualized objects (actual object, figure, model, biological process, etc.), with the written word (scientific text, literary works in mother tongue or foreign languages, etc.) and with ideated objects (creative art or writing, applied arts, design of parts or instruments needed for work in hand, etc.).

The foregoing is one among many possible classifications. All can be valid if based on coherent criteria. Of the structures applicable in general to higher education a selection only will be discussed below being those which in the writer's opinion are liable to be of special interest for the didactics of librarianship.

THE CLASS AS THE BASIC DIDACTIC STRUCTURE

As teaching is currently organized, the class is still the most comprehensive didactic structure and the specific sphere of teaching action on and with the student group.

Of course the term 'class' does not have one meaning only. In Spanish the word *clase* may be used to denote the *aula* or room where the classes are held. In other cases it means 'lesson',[1] i.e., the teacher's vehicle for transmitting the matter being studied. Finally the term is used for the teacher-student combine pursuing a common instructional or educational purpose. This last meaning is the one deemed correct by the writer and the term will be used in that sense here.

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[1] R. Cousinet, *Lecciones de pedagogía*, chap. I, Buenos Aires, Nova, 1950.

Conceived in these terms, the class is a true community realizable under a multitude of forms and permitting of the utmost diversity of procedures. According to the traditional view, the class was identified with the set lesson, but in modern pedagogical and didactic theory, the lesson is only one of its forms of expression. A practical class is a class; but is does not necessarily start from a formal lesson by the teacher. Other bona fide forms of class are the professors' impromptu remarks on simple observations of phenomena, events or processes, or what the students themselves work out in the course of a series of guided or free activities.

The various forms which the class may take (always starting from planning by the instructor who must never abandon his guiding function) are extremely varied. In simplified terms, and making the assumption that the class is the locale for the communication of knowledge and the development of the pupil's capacities, Gilbert Highet[1] distinguishes three forms of communication which demonstrate the varied possibilities available in this basic didactic structure. These forms are the teacher's exposition or lesson, the tutorial system (ascribed, by Highet, to Socrates as inventor) in which the teacher puts questions to the pupil with the design of bringing the latter to a realization of his own ignorance and guiding him towards a fuller truth; and the procedure of 'home work' by the pupil, which serves as a peg for amplification and deeper exploration of the themes by the professor and enables him to verify how far the matter has been assimilated.

But here we come to individual didactic procedures, forms or structures, which deserve special treatment.

THE EXPOSITORY PROCEDURE AND THE LESSON

The oldest didactic procedure relies on the most readily available means of communication: the spoken word. This is the lesson given by the teacher, which reigned alone and supreme in the traditional classroom and which, in its proper place and working in with other didactic procedures to fulfil the formative function, is still of importance in the new-model class. The expository medium will be able to retain its significance if its conception and handling are informed by a clear notion of how it fits into the complex process of teaching and learning.

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[1] G. Highet, *The art of teaching*, chap. 3, b, New York, Vintage Books, 1954.

The need for exposition is confirmed if we remember that the teaching-learning process has many successive phases, and that in some of them there is no substitute for the lesson. For instance, it is needed for the introduction of a theme, for organizing the separate elements comprised in the educational subject and for a final synthesis which will help to consolidate and interpret the element of the instruction. Its functions are thus presentation, orientation and synthesis.

In higher education the functions of the expository procedure must be exercised within the terms of what is the essence of the university lesson—that it is not mere repetition of what others have said, but a critical survey of opinions and conclusions in the field concerned, a progress report on the 'state of the subject', a guide to enable the student to find his way into the special world of each of his subjects and their constituent topics. Accordingly there is no reason for the lesson in class to be only the vehicle for instruction *ex cathedra*. Just as 'class' is not synonymous with 'passive class', so the expository lesson need not be equivalent and totally assimilable to the merely informative lesson and devoid of matter or pointers intended to stimulate spontaneous learning by the student.

In higher education, the expository procedure fills another need: that of coping with the ever-growing numbers of students, at least as regards presentation, orientation and synthesis. Naturally, there is no question of requiring that only the actual procedure meet certain conditions: as is the case in all sectors of education a further prerequisite is a certain state of mind on the part of the professor or teacher. In order to fulfil the fine axiom of Barth, 'the spoken word is radiant heat, the written word is latent heat', what is said and heard will have illuminative power when it is backed by real enthusiasm for the theme being treated.

We re-establish, or simply establish, the expository procedure when it is correctly conceived and executed so as not to make us lose sight of the possibility and necessity for other didactic forms and structures fitted together within a coherent framework of principles and objectives. On these lines exposition comes to be a product of genuine planning and elaboration and maintains its standing as a useful mechanism in the functioning of the teaching-learning combination.

DEMONSTRATION, INTERROGATION, CONVERSATION AND DISCUSSION

The writer has deliberately emphasized in his assessment the expository procedure in its traditional form, the lesson—that is to say, the verbal exposition of the teacher. Nevertheless, the expository procedure has accumulated other secondary forms which are now helping to make the instructional process more dynamic. These variants are not exclusively verbal, but are qualified as expository by the fact that the active role still falls to the instructor. Examples of these forms are the procedures of demonstration, interrogation and conversation.

An element in demonstration is what Stöcker calls 'exemplary performance by the teacher and imitation by the pupil',[1] so that this procedure consists not merely in exhibiting a particular subject or cultural model, but in making the student want to grasp or apprehend it. Demonstration has greater penetration than mere 'presentation', inasmuch as the teacher or professor actually does what the pupil ought to do if he were in the same cultural position as the teacher and had the same experience. For instance, explaining how to prepare a bibliographical card is not the same as doing it, giving a physical demonstration of the correct way of completing it. This procedure, though non-verbal, is fundamentally expository.

Interrogation, from the didactic standpoint, is a procedure aimed at awakening and directing the student's reasoning processes, opening his eyes to the problems and possibilities of the study material and orienting his apprehension of them. It fulfils at once a stimulatory and an evaluative function, since it starts, or should start, from the student's own experience or knowledge. For this reason it is used to diagnose the level of learning and, at a later stage, to investigate and check what has been learnt. It is a derivative of exposition, into which it fits as an enlivening element.

Conversation is in a way a development from interrogation, but it goes further and is richer in reciprocal formative effects. Although it is normally started by a leading question by the professor, it creates the possibility of dialogue, and consequently of free exchange of views. The question or subject matter under consideration may be examined from the most varied angles and enriched with unsuspected viewpoints. The excellence of conversation consists in its putting the participants on an equal footing and effecting a natural reconciliation between the cultural objectivity and personal authority of the teacher and the individuality of the pupil. In addition, conversation is the intermediate or transitional stage between the verbal exposition, or lesson, given by the teacher, and the group discussion, which is a much more rigorous scientific and didactic structure.

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[1] G. Highet, *The art of teaching*, op. cit., chap. 3.

Discussion is a didactic procedure which presupposes greater exigencies and stricter conditions than conversation and, like it, is only possible in small groups. It consists essentially in starting an argument about a subject or problem, but it will not be effective unless the participants have had a certain preliminary preparation in the subject for debate. If this is lacking, the 'discussion' will remain no more than a 'conversation'. At the start the discussion may take a variety of forms, but then either the professor or the students propound or develop a central theme, studied and tested beforehand. The discussion group is a highly effective and perfectly practicable didactic structure in higher education in view of the maturity of the students and their interest in a specific cultural orientation or specialization. From the professor's standpoint, it is a valuable element for judging the extent to which students have learnt and understood, as well as serving him as a guide line for organizing the course.

This brief mention of the procedures of demonstration, interrogation, conversation and discussion enables one to understand how exposition may be a didactic structure which is not founded only on the active role of the professor. Conversation and discussion call, above all, for a modification of the professor's role in the formative encounter between the protagonists in the instructional and educational activity.

We have thus, by imperceptible degrees, arrived at a type of didactic structure which we could call participative, since its foundation is the possibility of joint development of the subject-contents and values of the teaching. These participative structures are the initial ones to have emerged in the now infinite gamut of group work and group teaching procedures,[1] so well adapted to learner needs in higher education.

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[1] J. C. Filloux, *El estudio de los pequeños grupos y sus aplicaciones* (translated by O. Menin), Santa Fé, Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Departamento de Pedagogía Universitaria, 1964. See also: Association pour la Recherche et l'Intervention Psycho-sociologique, *Pédagogie et psychologie des groupes*, Paris, EPI, 1965.

Moreover they are in harmony with the concept of a university as a 'community' of cultural work.

FROM OBSERVATION TO INQUIRY

The lesson *ex cathedra* and the participative didactic structures represent the two extremes of the didactic organization, instruction being considered as conforming to an order which is not only logical but pedagogically sound. This order is that of the teaching cycle which begins by 'presenting' the subject and ends with provision for the active association of the pupil in the subject's development.

We now need to shift to the other possible standpoint and trace the didactic structures answering to the actual training and learning process from the pupil's side which also begins simply through contact with the instructional material (subjects and assigned work) to conclude with the development of his capabilities and the acquisition of the intellectual techniques which will enable him to tackle, on his own, the theoretical and practical problems which may confront him in the cultural and professional sector of his choice. Naturally, these remarks are made with direct reference to the structure and aims of higher education.

Observation

This didactic form provides for the simplest form of contact with the reality of the field of work selected by the student. Apart from the purely speculative fields, almost all university degree courses centre on some concrete sector whether in the domain of natural phenomena or the more complex sphere of cultural, social or institutional phenomena. In the specific case of library training this sector is clearly delimited and susceptible of observation. Inspection of actual libraries and books forms an essential part of the process which will give the student a direct link with—an acclimatization to—his sphere of study and work.

Danton considers this aspect of the training so important that he includes 'visits to libraries' (field trips) among the eight 'methods' propounded by him in library didactics.[1]

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[1] In the work cited Danton discusses the following methods: lectures, the seminar, practice work, field trips, papers and bibliographies, laboratory work, problems and class discussion.

Like any other structure conceived in didactic terms, that of observation must present certain specific qualities and may take a variety of forms. According to the level of student participation, the observation may be free or guided or a combination of the two. Bearing in mind that observation is supposed to direct the subject's attention to a particular object or process, it becomes necessary to fix the end sought with precision and to teach the student how to observe. That being so the teacher has an essential function and only after repeated exercises will he be able to permit free observation according to the interests and capacities of the students.

Direct participation. Practical work and 'laboratories'

Observation is a direct experience of a particular situation or process; but it is, so to speak, experience from 'outside'. On the other hand, 'practice' is a way of introducing oneself into the process and experiencing it from within.

Learning by direct experience has a multitude of didactic forms and it is unrealistic to attempt to classify them. We shall describe only two of them on the strength of their suitability for, and wide use in, higher education: practical work and laboratory work.

Practical work in its broader sense is an activity carried out with and by the students whereby knowledge acquired by reading or hearing is rounded off and assimilated by direct use of the material itself (text, technique, process). However it is possible to go beyond this and grant that practical work can be a medium for creating in the student capacity to reach a result by his own efforts or to verify it by theoretical principles or knowledge.

Understood in this sense, practical work plays an important part in the learning of the subject-contents of the various syllabuses and curricula and above all in the learning of the related activities. However in university didactics practical work may reach higher status, to become anticipatory 'practice' during the period of training, of an actual profession (e.g., medical students' internships in hospitals).

Laboratory work is only a special form of practical work and exercises and like them implies direct participation in the handling of instructional and professional materials. Here, accordingly, the term 'laboratory' is used in its most general sense and not restricted exclusively to 'scientific' laboratories.

Few 'schools' are as well placed as library science for applying these didactic systems or forms because, apart from the natural sciences, pure and simple, few of them have 'laboratory' facilities as complete as those represented by a library, where students can get first-hand experience of cataloguing, classifying and bibliographical research.

Literature search. Reading, commentary and bibliographical notation

Literature search is both a didactic form typical of university teaching and learning and also ties in with both the nature and the objectives of librarianship training.

Just as there is no university without good libraries, so there can be no university education without literature search. This is the initial stage of any scientific task and the correct teaching of its techniques is a necessity in all university courses.

But the learning of these documentation techniques cannot remain at a superficial level. Apart from the ability to select and grade texts for the purposes of their individual or group study themes, studens must develop the power of getting an adequate grasp of the theme of the texts and be able to put this knowledge to use in the general context of their course of studies.

Hence the literature search is of educational value only if it is combined with commentaries on the texts. This is also a form of practical work whereby it is sought primarily to develop the critical faculties of the student. The commentaries need to be written under expert direction which will help to disclose what is of worth and substance in the doctrine or exposition of each author, can situate that author and his ideas in his time and show his contribution to the sector of culture under consideration and can connect what is read with what the student is doing and learning in the university.

The literature search and its profounder variant, exegesis, achieve real effectiveness when the student learns to organize the thoughts contained in or suggested by the books. though a medium which derives directly from library science and technology, namely the bibliographical analysis of texts for reference purposes.

In an interesting report on a specific and personal case, Ovide Menin[1] plainly indicates the conditions which bibliographical notation must fulfil in order to be educationally effective. According to him it is a means whereby the study material can be expected to become functional and, when the search is intelligently directed and the selection adequately criticized on the score of quality, up-to-dateness and originality, a further result will be some facilitation of the work of learning. Additionally from the technical point of view, 'bibliographical notation obliges the student to work within certain norms in universal use, which is of the utmost benefit to the training of the future researcher'.

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[1] O. Menin, Una técnica capaz de dinamizar el trabajo de seminario: el fichado. *Universidad* (Santa Fé, Argentina), vol. 64, 1965, p. 273-88.

Here again, there are few specialized didactics which, like library science, offer procedures evolved in their own domain and capable of conversion into a dynamic teaching medium, not only for the specialist subjects but for the totality of the subject-contents and activities of the curriculum of library schools, with the additional advantage that, from this point of view the contribution of the library disciplines may be decisive for the advancement of all university didactics.

Written work

Generally speaking, written work is a form of individual work, although it is being increasingly treated as a product of group work.

Written work may range from merely completing a questionnaire designed to assess the student's progress, to the original expression of an idea, a doctrine or the results of research. Between these extremes are to be found other forms of written work such as reports, summaries, bibliographies and monographs.[1] In this sense, written work can round out any of the didactic forms usable in higher education, from simple observation to comments on texts and seminar research.

Written work fulfils general functions valid for any level and sector of education, apart from any special functions which may be imposed by individual subject or course orientations. In general its first function is to help to organize the material learnt in pursuance of an instructional aim which may equally well be the acquisition or the interpretation of knowledge. That is the systematizing function of written work; in addition it is a medium for practising correct and elegant expression and the proper use of the language.

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[1] A. Asti Vera, Metodología de los trabajos, *Temas de pedagogía universitaria*, vol. 1, 1957, p. 155-76.

The seminar

If, as was said in the previous chapter, any didactics of higher education must be founded on the intimate union of teaching and research, it follows that the latter is necessarily the pinnacle of university training. The appropriate didactic structure for it is the seminar which, as Rudolfo Mondolfo has well said, can be a school to hand down the inheritance of scientific inquiry from generation to generation, and as in Lucretius' splendid image, the light passed from hand to hand in the torch race of antiquity.[1]

The seminar may be defined as the didactic organism which provides an apprenticeship in scientific research by work with the specific method used by each science to establish its truths and conclusions.

The didactic 'method' could consist in teaching the student how to handle the instruments of intellectual work (teaching of research by means of research itself); in analysing the data and problems and not merely the bibliographical sources; in explicating the subject or problem and not merely stating it; in teaching the technique of original thinking; and in methodically describing the study completed.[2]

Inasmuch as research is, pre-eminently, the operating medium of the seminar the latter must of necessity be highly specialized in orientation and restricted in its theme.

From the student's standpoint, the seminar is the 'university' didactic structure affording him the best chances for the discovery of his capabilities and personal aptitudes. For that reason it must start from a sound previous training and take place at the highest level of university education. As between the levels of education represented respectively by training for library assistants and highly qualified librarians, the seminar, in the writer's view, is only appropriate to the latter.

As far as the professor is concerned, his task can only be to provide orientation and guidance, to arbitrate and synthesize. Accordingly this didactic form requires that the teacher have a sound training in and a great experience of creative work. Otherwise he runs the risk of stultifying the seminar by converting it into a mere lecture *ex cathedra* or into a *mêlée* of opinions totally without a basis of scientific method.

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[1] Introduction in R. Mondolfo, *Problemas y métodos de la investigación en historia de la filosofía*, Tucumán, Universidad Nacional, Institut de Filosofía, 1949. See also: F. Larroyo, *Pedagogía de la enseñanza superior (naturaleza, métodos, organización)*, part I, chap. 8, Mexico, Universidad Nacional Autónoma, Facultad de Filosofía y Letras, Seminario de Didáctica y Organización 1959.

[2] N. Muratti, El seminario y sus funciones, *Temas de pedagogía universitaria*, vol. 1, 1957, p. 257-65.

As the highest form of the university's didactic structure, the seminar has no reason to teach the techniques of research but simply to apply them within a specific domain of inquiry. This presupposes that the techniques of intellectual work have already been taught. Hence the need for pre-seminars, whose function this is, for instance by teaching of the technique of scientific documentation and the use of information. In this domain also, library science can provide a vast body of experience and knowledge for its own use and for all other departments of higher education. Perhaps for this reason the seminar is bound to become a normal form of higher education for librarianship.

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Methods of teaching librarianship

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Introduction

The description or critique of the methods used in the teaching of librarianship presents a difficult problem for more than one reason. The first is terminological: librarians and teachers of librarianship use the word 'method' in a sense which differs often from that given it by the generality of educators. As was pointed out in the preceding chapter, there are strictly speaking only two methods: the inductive and the deductive. All the other so-called methods are really operative procedures and techniques, as Nassif puts it. In the sphere of library science this is quite obvious, but the literature on the field's teaching methodology is sparse and often 'woolly'. The cry for better and more varied 'methods' recurs in all publications on librarianship education, which concentrate essentially on two subjects: librarians' training and the inadequate adaptation of library education to the actual needs of libraries. In both cases, the need to go more deeply into the teaching 'methods' is stressed, with the most numerous contributions in this connexion coming from the Americans who have produced some books and a fair number of articles dealing with these 'methods' in one form or another. The *Journal of education for librarianship*, in particular, demonstrates in its pages the topicality of the theme.

However, the most cursory glance at these publications (of which a selected bibliography is given at the end of this part) at once reveals certain common characteristics: in the first place, they are really discussing not methods but operating procedures and techniques. Secondly, they show clearly that library science has not equipped itself with any sort of special didactic method. Thirdly, the inadequacy of all the studies of methods, without exception, leaps to the eye.

Although for convenience' sake the word 'method' is used frequently in the course of this study, it will be appreciated that here it means no more than particular forms of applying the inductive and deductive methods. Broadly speaking, the procedures so far used in teaching librarianship are the following: lectures or classes; discussions in class; practical work; laboratory work; institutes, round tables, panels and workshops (terms which, in American practice, may or may not indicate differences of approach), case studies and seminars. To these activities must be added other forms, more limited in the tasks they impose on students and professors alike, namely: monographs, bibliographies and, in general, all types of written work, interviews and visits. Then a look should be taken at certain newer methods, proposed first and foremost for the teaching of documentation, such as system design, and also at certain techniques such as programmed instruction aimed at resolving or at least easing the problem of diffusing knowledge.

In conclusion mention must be made of auxiliary teaching media, of which those having the most (though limited) importance for library education would be certain types of audio-visual material, slides, filmstrips, and longer sound films.

As has already been said, library training has not developed its own special teaching method. It has taken over the methods of traditional didactics and in some circumstances has borrowed methods from other disciplines—e.g., case studies borrowed from law and economics—without introducing any notable modifications. Here we have the explanation of the limited material on methodology for library training. In the conventional and admittedly excellent works on education for librarianship it is only rarely that a few pages are devoted to the methodology and those are repeatedly characterized by hesitations, lamentations and vague proposals, without it being easy to get any concrete help from them. No reproach is of course intended by this and the present study will not be able to get much further, addressed as it is to teachers of schools in countries only developing their library science; in addition to the handicaps encountered by their colleagues in countries where librarianship is fully developed, such teachers also face the difficulties arising from the lack of many items of teaching material available to the former in abundance. The fact is, however, that when professors accustomed to teaching in top flight schools write about their methods, they mostly describe, without much detail, how they run their classes or carry out their programmes but rarely discuss methods at any length and even more rarely arrive at general conclusions.

Undoubtedly a factor in this situation is the circumstance that librarianship is itself a discipline whose content is in a state of continuous change not only because librarianship as a subject is becoming richer and more complex but because the objectives of the training are changing in pace with the mutations of the social sphere in which the library operates and with the new exigencies of the surrounding *milieu*. Accordingly, certain methods (a concrete example is practical work in a library) suffer remarkable vicissitudes, and acceptance of such methods ranges from enthusiastic to strictly qualified, while particular techniques, originally considered excellent, first fall out of fashion and then after a time are vindicated and return to favour.

In any case it is fairly common to meet in professors of librarianship a measure of doubt about the importance of the various methods, because in library education it is not easy to dissociate the choice of methods from the content of the courses. It is the actual content of the courses which evokes constant reflection, exchanges of ideas among librarians, and on occasion conflicts of view between librarians and librarianship professors. That it is much more important to better the content rather than the method is a remark a thousand times repeated, along with the assertion that, as in all teaching, the key to success lies in the natural aptitude of the teacher much more than in the quality or variety of the methods he uses.

On page 30, Nassif lists the themes of library training pedagogics. It would have been of great interest to develop and analyse the twelve items he gives but this, unfortunately, is precluded by the limits set for this publication. However, there is one item which, if not discussed before description of the didactic procedures, would leave the door open to confusion about the present and future limits of librarianship; this is the item on curricula and syllabuses.

Curriculum

CONTENT OF THE CURRICULUM

The curricula are subordinated to the objectives and contents of library science. The traditional notion handed down from the nineteenth century is inspired by a view of life at once romantic and liberal. As late as 1936 we find Marcel Godet calling the public library a factor for 'liberty' (or perhaps liberation?) and the echo of this fancy was to be repeated timelessly down to our own day, less by librarians than by educators and men of letters. But rather more than a hundred years after the founding of the Boston Public Library, it is not easy to subscribe to the proposition unreservedly. The role of the public library in the society of today needs to be defined more precisely and in the certainty that it will be subject to rapid variations. We can properly ask how far the library is a mere repository, to what extent it is an element in the educational process, whether or not it is a force in social and economic development, how it operates in the creation of culture and, finally—a question of key importance today—what part it plays in the complex sphere of information. It is on the answers to all these questions that the objectives ascribed to the library will depend and therewith, in Nassif's own words, the concepts, ends and functions of training for librarianship.

In the second place, and as a consequence of what has just been said, the domain of library studies needs to be defined. It is not intended to call into question the set of traditional disciplines which figure in the curriculum of all librarianship courses. Where the friction arises, as it does, is over the mass of information piling up in libraries and related repositories today, and over the speed with which this information must be retrieved to meet the urgent requests of users. In other words, the appearance and burgeoning of documentation are creating difficult problems by revealing that the traditional librarianship criteria are now unduly restrictive and by emphasizing the limited nature of libraries' traditional work forms and media in face of the complexity of the new situations. This crisis touches librarians in their professional capacity and confronts them with a dilemma which must be analysed before discussing any aspect of library education, namely whether or not documentation forms part of library science. It is a difficult question which does not appear susceptible of any single solution. Thus Shera can fairly speak of a 'critical period' of change, uncertainty and hesitation over the best path to take in regard to the vast problem of communication, for which the answers are for the present only provisional.[1]

There are in point of fact a number of considerations which may determine whether or not the schools include in their curricula the collective subjects relating to the 'science of information' in all its aspects. The weightiest precedent consists in the libraries themselves having developed information activities. Thus in the United States it has been held, ever since 1876, that the provision of a reference service is one of the libraries' most imperative obligations and indeed this service and its lavishness is perhaps the most interesting feature in the range of United States library services.

As time passed the reference work increased and what had been merely a service of sporadic aid to readers evolved into a complex technical and administrative machine, which not all libraries can maintain today. Little by little, many of them began to advance further into the field of documentation, and some, particularly the scientific libraries (e.g., the John Crerar Library in Chicago), were very soon providing a full-blown documentation service. The concern and disorientation caused by these developments are reflected in a multitude of writings on the subject, of which the fullest is a stimulating book by Samuel Rothstein,[2] in which he himself is certainly unable to discern the way out. With the coming of the electronic computer and the consequent dominance of much of the field by 'library engineers', the situation worsened and appears to have reached its nadir with the formation of a 'library aristocracy' whose jargon and problems are often unintelligible and even without interest to many of their colleagues.[1] If this new library aristocracy is right, documentation is a part of librarianship[2] and the schools would have to include in their curricula the component subjects of a discipline whose complexity can be gathered from the article by Rees and Saracevic, published in 1965, and even more from Montgomery's article of 1964.[3]

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[1] J. H. Shera, Introduction and welcome, in: A. J. Goldwyn and A. M. Rees (ed.), *The education of science information personnel—1964*, p. 1-5. Cleveland, Western Reserve University, School of Library Science, Centre for Documentation and Communication Research, 1965.

[2] S. Rothstein, *The development of reference services through academic traditions, public library practice and special librarianship*, Chicago, Association of College and Reference Libraries, 1955 (ACRL monographs, 14).

The scientists, in their turn, harried by the need to have good and rapid information available, have also invaded the domain of librarianship to support those who favoured radical reorientation of library science and are pressing the schools to recast their curricula. Concurrently, Shera has accumulated arguments in favour of the extension[4] while

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[1] R. Z. Sellers, A different drummer: thoughts on library education. *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6, 1966, p. 151-66.

[2] The word 'librarianship' is defined as follows in the Higher Education Act of 1965 of the United States Congress, Title II (B), Sec. 222: 'For the purpose of this part the term "librarianship" means the principles and practices of the library and information sciences, including the acquisition, organization, storage, retrieval and dissemination of information, and reference and research use of library and other information services' (quoted in the *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6, 1966, p. 219).

See on this topic: C. D. Gull, The challenges of teaching the information science, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6. 1965, p. 61-4; R. M. Hayes, The development of a methodology for system design and its role in library education, in: Chicago University, Graduate Library School, Annual Conference, 29, *The intellectual foundations of library education*, p. 51-63, edited by D. R. Swanson; C. G. Stevenson, Library education; the shape of the future, *Special libraries*, vol. 54, 1963, p. 261-2; L. A. Martin, *Implications for the education of librarians*, in: Chicago University, Graduate Library School, Annual Conference, 20,1955, *The future of the book; implications of the newer developments in communication*, edited by L. Asheim.

[3] A. M. Rees and T. Saracevic, Teaching documentation at Western Reserve University, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6, 1965, p. 8-13; E. B. Montgomery, Curriculum implications of library dynamics, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 5, 1964, p.103-9.

[4] J. H. Shera, In defense of diversity, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 4, 1964, p. 137-42. As early as 1953, when the eleven basic propositions for professional education were adopted, he said: '9. Any specific bibliographic operation is an integral part of the totality of society's bibliographical apparatus, and any local system must assume its share of responsibility for the effectiveness of the whole, for fragmentation leads to an isolation that is not only socially injurious but may even result in the eventual breakdown of our increasingly complex intellectual organisation. 10. The documentalist and the librarian, therefore, need the same kind of theoretical training, based upon a mutual recognition of a unitary social responsibility.' In: J. H. Shera and M. E. Egan, Examen del estado actual de la biblioteconomía y de la documentación (translated by A. J. Giangrasso), *Universidad* (Santa Fé, Argentina), vol. 61, 1964, p.279-321 (p. 317). Spanish version of the introduction to S. C. Bradford, *Documentation*, 2nd ed., London, Crosby, Lockwood & Son, 1953.

Rees[1] who also goes along with the reformers, reaches conclusions which could easily boomerang and serve as weapons to refute them. 'An information system', he writes, 'which stops at transferring information from one human intelligence to another is inadequate . . .' and he would have this limited role left to the special libraries. He regards the provision of references to documents unaccompanied by notes on their value as a half-done job. He goes on to concede the failure of the attempts so far made by the schools of librarianship to do something more than develop new technical skills unrelated to basic principles, and ends with the assertion that 'the most realistic and substantial contribution for the immediate future can come only from the schools of librarianship'. He mentions the Western Reserve University School of Librarianship as moving in that direction, towards a synthesis and integration of the theory and practice of traditional library science with the empirical experiences derived from the planning and operation of the unconventional retrieval systems in the sphere of science and technology. To this end, the school is working in liaison with other research institutions with a view to establishing basic laws for information systems and helping in the formulation of an academic curriculum for the training of scientific information personnel. Rees' final claim is that no institution is better placed than a school of librarianship for formulating an adequate curriculum of this kind. However, his confidence does not always seem to be shared by other librarians and still less by the scientists. The latter point out that scientific literature is written by specialists for specialists and that here information retrieval is a highly specialized task, only possible to scientists. The schools of librarianship do not seem to have grasped the profundity of the problem and thus reaction has been on a smaller scale than the scientists wanted. They are in danger of having the training of science information specialists and information scientists reft from them and some thought is now being given to the possibility of creating other university degrees not necessarily in the context of librarianship.[2] The fact is that institutions which are not fundamentally schools of librarianship have already begun courses to train a whole gamut of documentalists, for instance: the Drexel Institute of Technology, the Georgia Institute of Technology and the Massachusetts

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[1] A. M. Rees, New dimensions in library education: the training of science information personnel, *Special libraries*, vol. 54, 1963, p. 497-502.

[2] C. G. Stevenson, Library education; the shape of the future, op. cit.

Institute of Technology in the United States; the Bangalore Documentation Research and Training Centre in India; and VINITI in the U.S.S.R.[1] Of these the Drexel Institute is training four different categories of documentalists (directors, instructors, analysts and manipulators) and this would seem to be a strong argument for the belief that the training of documentalists and librarians is daily diverging more and more.

From the above, it may be gathered that the country most advanced in education for librarianship, the United States, is making tremendous efforts to give library science, as a discipline, a much fuller content than hitherto and above all a scientific rigour it has so far lacked.[2] In Shaw's view, it is the impact of the change which has cast down the libraries' ancient ivory tower. There are new responsibilities to be defined, and accomplishing this requires that the best minds in science, the humanities, communications and librarianship combine their efforts.[3] Should success be achieved, library education would have to review and recast its curricula, which would certainly be inadequate for those new responsibilities and others in prospect. Morton puts it that we must train librarians for change, the present-day libraries being very different from what they were when he himself and many others entered the profession.

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1. N. P. Skrypnev, On the state of library education in the U.S.S.R. and the means of improving
it, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 5, 1964, p. 110-13; L. Vichniakoff, Enseignements
nouveaux dans les techniques de l'information scientifique, *Bulletin des bibliothèques de France*,
vol. 9, 1964, p. 373-86; J. Ferradane, Training for information science, in: R. L. Collinson
(ed.), *Progress in library science*, p. 96-110, London, Butterworths, 1965; B. Balbis, La ense-
ñanza de la documentación en Italia (translation with notes by D. Buonocore), *Universidad*,
(Santa Fé, Argentina), vol. 66, 1965, p. 199-214.
Brazil has adopted a position similar to that of the United States. For a digest of the argu-
ments on which that choice is based see: M. L. Monteiro da Cunha, *Formación de bibliotecarios,*
bibliógrafos y documentalistas en America Latina, in: *Informe provisional*, p. 45-53, México, 1960
(Seminario latinoamericano de Bibliografía, Documentación y Canje de Publicaciones, 1).
See also her: Formación profesional, in: *Round table for international co-operation for library and*
information services in Latin America. Washington, 1965. Final report and documents, vol. 1, p. 119-31,
Washington, Pan American Union, 1966. An analytical list of courses on documentation in
Poland, appears in: Central Institute for Scientific, Technical and Economic Information,
A guide to the world's training facilities in documentation and information work, The Hague, FID,
1965 (FID, 373).
2. A. Kaplan, The age of the symbol; a philosophy of library education, in: Chicago University,
Graduate Library School, Annual Conference, 29, 1964, op. cit., p. 7-16; J. H. Shera,
Toward a new dimension for library education; the shape of the future, *ALA bulletin*, vol. 57,
1963, p. 313-17; D. R. Swanson, The intellectual foundations of library education: introduction,
in: Chicago University, Graduate Library School, Annual Conference, 29, 1964, op. cit., p. 1-6.
3 R. P. Shaw, The library's role in society today, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 2,
1962, p. 177-82.

Tomorrow they will not be what they are today. The facts and practices being taught could become obsolete before the current year's intake has completed its studies. Schools teach general principles, develop the students' capacity to adapt and apply on their own, with the vision and imagination necessary to cope with the foreseeable changes they are bound to meet in the course of their professional careers.[1]

These new angles in library science have only been stressed as a preliminary to a conclusion of great importance for our present purpose: if the aspirations of Shera, Shaw, Swanson, Kaplan and other eminent librarians and scientists are valid, library science, as far as the developing countries are concerned, will become a speciality so complex and subject to such rapid changes that the target of training specialists to serve certain fields will be increasingly unattainable. But at the same time it must be recognized that those countries have as much right as any other to access to information and that the use of information on a national or an international level ought to be open to all equally.

Are we therefore confronting an entirely new discipline emergent from the traditional librarianship domain or is it merely an enrichment of a traditional speciality? If the latter is the case, the schools will be left with no alternative to the periodical and radical revision of their curricula. If, on the other hand, documentation is something new which has overflowed and broken away from library science, the schools will continue to train librarians while accepting or rejecting the additional function of training the new kinds of specialists. If they accept the task, they will have to recognize their enormous dependence upon other specialities and borrow subjects from other degree courses. Unquestionably a prerequisite for the training of documentalists is interdisciplinary teaching. How far this type of training is the prerogative of the librarians and to what extent schools of librarianship should commit themselves to this new task are matters not only still unresolved, but particularly worrying for developing countries. Library science in the United States is endeavouring to work towards a solution, as is strikingly evidenced by the ambitious Newhouse Communication Center of the University of Syracuse grouping journalism, radio and television, communications and librarianship studies and running its programmes in collaboration with centres in other universities.[1] On information science, Hayes points out that the hard core of the curriculum has been assigned to the School of Library Science, because librarianship is the profession most directly concerned with the handling of information as such, and in this sense information science is part of the theoretical substructure of librarianship, but that nevertheless, given the interdisciplinary nature of the problem of information, many of the subjects in the curriculum will have to be taken by arrangement in other departments and schools.[2] Boaz again, arguing for a better use of competent librarians, advises 'an interdisciplinary exchange with other professions' and contends that the new curricula for library schools should include the principles and methods of traditional librarianship, but must also offer access, through interdisciplinary co-operation, to the personnel, books and laboratories of the whole university and its faculties.[3]

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[1] F. F. Morton, *Education for librarians*, p. 20 and 21, Emporia, Ka., Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, 1961. See also the two numbers recently devoted by *Library journal* to the views of library directors on the deficit in numbers and the qualities of library graduates: vol. 91, no. 7, 1 April 1966; no. 18, 15 October 1966.

Nevertheless, and despite everything, no one can deny that what was the heart of library science, the 'basic' library services and the 'basic' library which Danton[4] has called 'an educational storehouse of knowledge, guidance and inspiration for the many' are crying necessities in the developing countries, and that the training of professionals for the efficient performance in them of the services which have been their specific task and pride for a century past, is still a matter of the utmost urgency. Unquestionably, all countries to some extent need documentalists of some kind. But for the moment, there seems little prospect of providing full training in the majority of library schools, if the dangers of ludicrous makeshifts are to be avoided. It is only necessary to read Gull's article[5] on the use of computers in teaching documentation and the limitations imposed by the cost of preparing the demonstrations to appreciate the difficulties encountered even by schools in the developed

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1. *The education of science information personnel (1964)*, op. cit., p. 21.
2. R. M. Hayes, The new Master of Science degree in information science (documentation) to be given by the School of Library Service, UCLA, in: *Symposium on Education for Information Science. Warrington, Va., 1965. Proceedings*, p. 61-6, Washington, Spartan Books; London, Macmillan, 1965.
3. M. T. Boaz, More than deliberate speed, *ALA bulletin*, vol. 60, 1966, p. 286-8.
4. J. P. Danton, *Education for librarianship*, p. 2, Paris, Unesco, 1950 (Unesco public library manuals, 1).
5. C. D. Gull, The challenges of teaching the information sciences, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6, 1965, p. 61-4.

countries. On the documentation side, all that seems possible is, first, to give students a general idea of what it is, of the field it covers and the trends in it, and secondly, to introduce them to the practical methods of documentation, and of data storage and retrieval. The schools would find it very difficult to extend their own curricula any further, for lack of experience and of facilities alike. But if they were to succeed in arranging interdisciplinary programmes in co-operation with other university and specialist entities, their prospects would be extended to a barely foreseeable extent and their techniques and practices could contribute to the training of the documentalists.

A problem allied to documentation is that of the effect on libraries of mechanization in the sense of the application to conventional forms of library organizations of certain particularized techniques which do not amount to mechanical documentation in the strict sense.[1] These techniques are being taught in some North American library schools and should not be overlooked by countries which, precisely because they are in the process of development, could experiment with them in zones and on populations which are still untouched from the library angle. There are no studies on how and to what extent the countries in question should turn these advances in mechanization to account, nor accordingly on how the advances would affect the curricula of their library schools. In this connexion much interest will attach to the result of the study started by Unesco on the application of mechanized systems in libraries and documentation centres having regard to the size of the institution, the services supplied, the cost of the mechanization processes, the personnel required, etc.

The third aspect to be considered in formulating the content of a library school curriculum is the characteristics of the *milieu* in which the prospective librarians will be serving plus whatever changes the concerned population group may be experiencing now or is likely to experience within the next few years. Under this head the economic situation exerts a powerful influence, with regard not only to the actual library schools (quality of their teaching staff, and teaching facilities including their special libraries) but also to what libraries the community may have or be in a position to start or expand. It is quite true that the library schools must always be working ahead of the requirements of the moment, and that it is only by setting themselves rather ambitious targets that they can propel library education and with it the librarians' profession to ever higher levels. But a proper proportion must be maintained between the nature of the teaching and the realities of the situation. Both the tendency to expatiate on things which are out of reach or difficult if not impossible to adapt to the *milieu* (usually the result of a premature fellowship in a country with a very advanced library system) and the use of texts written for schools in areas of high development must be carefully held in check. Along with the conditions described, we must reckon with the qualities of the freshmen entering library schools, who usually arrive knowing little or nothing of what a library is and how to use it. School libraries at both primary and secondary level alike very often fulfil no function in their teaching establishments. There is no co-operation between school-teachers, professors and librarians, and the latter take no active part in the process of education. If we add the fact that many developing countries have few public libraries, and that these in very many cases do not project themselves to the community, it is understandable that the students entering library schools should not have used a good library service and, in some cases, should not be in the habit of using libraries at all. This also explains librarianship's lack of appeal in many of these countries and the low enrolment at library schools as, for instance, in Latin America.[1] Hence the necessity, as a matter of urgency, of starting courses or other forms of training in the use of a library and the first steps in research work at each level of education. The content of such courses is simple: training in the use of the school library, handling of the main reference sources, guidance on bibliographical searching, use of available materials for small research projects and drafting of simple papers. This excellent practical training supplemented by reading hours in the library and the classroom as a part of the regular programme of instruction palliates the difficulties of the situation often facing students at university level who have not acquired the habit of recourse to libraries and who are confused by them and ill-equipped to take advantage of their services. The temptation to be resisted in these courses is that of making the student a librarian *in posse* by pushing the training too far into the technical sphere.[1]

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[1] H. C. Campbell, Some implications for libraries of communications satellites, *Unesco bulletin for libraries*, vol. XX, 1966, p. 129-32, 139.

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[1] In 1962, Latin America was 16,241 librarians short of requirements. Of the 18,848 in service, only 21.30 per cent had had academic training. It was estimated that over the period 1962-72, 25,202 more librarians would be needed. Concurrently it was ascertained that the total student enrolment for thirteen Latin American countries (some countries as yet have no school for librarianship) was 1,696. Data taken from M. T. Sanz, *Análisis de los informes nacionales sobre el estado actual de la profesión bibliotecaria en la América Latina*, Medellín, Bedout, 1965.

In view of the situation of countries with only a nascent library science, it does not seem possible to take a uniform decision on the desirable content of their library schools' curriculum nor the extent to which the subjects forming the science of communications should figure in it. What is important is to have a clear notion of the problem, of the risks incurred alike by those who try to dash ahead too fast and by those who lag behind, and to appreciate that every country, while entitled to the fullness of library science, must achieve it by stages determined by what is possible. For this reason, the present manual will henceforward deal only with the basic and ineluctable part of the curriculum for a library school in any developing country, in other words with the traditional nucleus of subjects for training in librarianship.

SUBJECTS OF THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum subjects reflect general trends which can be deemed common to all countries, plus the specialities of subjects considered necessary in view of local traditions and interests. Generally speaking, all these subjects fall into two major groups: technical and 'educational'. Countries with an educational organization similar to that of the United States of America assume or imagine that a student's general education is complete when he secures the bachelor's or an equivalent degree. Whereas those countries which have adopted the European structure of countries such as France take the modest view that the cultural grounding afforded by teacher-training and baccalaureate courses (usually ten to twelve years' schooling, plus one year of propaedeutic general studies in the university) is insufficient for librarians. This accounts for the tendency of many library schools in the developing countries to include subjects such as philosophy, literature, history of culture, history of science and technology, pedagogics, introduction to the social sciences, etc., plus various language courses and, exceptionally, the study of a dead language. Only a minority of schools as yet teach typing.

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[1] G. S. Bonn, Training laymen in use of the library, in: R. R. Shaw (ed.), *The state of library art*, vol. 2, part I, p. 1-114, New Brunswick, N.J., The Rutgers University Graduate School of Library Service, 1960.

The instruction is built up around the traditional disciplines: cataloguing and classifying, references and bibliography, administration, the history of books and libraries. In addition, there is almost always a general subject concerning the theory of or introduction to, librarianship, which is something of an unknown quantity, and book selection. Just as in countries where library training is fully developed, opinions vary as to what should form the core of the training, as regards both the component subjects and even their content. In many cases all that is done is to follow the programmes of other countries, adapted with varying degrees of skill. 'Book selection' can serve as an example. This is a subject usually taught on wholly unrealistic lines, in terms of sources which are unavailable and of procedures and routines requiring possibilities of acquisition which bear no relation to the actual situation.

Apart from the 'core' subjects, the instruction centres on the various types of libraries and sometimes, although less frequently, on types of material, such as periodicals, government publications or special items. Other subjects taught are documentation, methodology of intellectual work, didactics of library education, and palaeography.

While obviously the diversification of the training described is low, this does not seem inadvisable, if we consider the librarianship situation in the countries where that training is given. Moreover the enthusiasm for diversity in training which was observed until a few years ago in the more developed countries has begun to yield ground before the necessity for a sound basic training common to all. In this connexion, the experience of the U.S.S.R. is of great interest. Again, the financial cost of diversification with advanced and specialist courses alike is high, and this is a factor which cannot be left out of account in countries which lack substantial resources and large enrolments. The essential thing is that the basic curriculum should supply a capital of concentrated knowledge which the librarian can apply later in a variety of circumstances.[1]

Directly related to diversification and specialization is the controversial problem of whether to train several grades of librarian. Various difficulties arise from this kind of grading, the two most notorious being the tendency to build up a depressed class within the profession and the difficulty of co-ordinating the levels mutually. But the advantages of such a system are undeniable, particularly for countries obliged to tackle the problem of training librarians *en masse*, with all or almost all the posts still to be filled. In these cases the training of a nucleus of directors and of large numbers of library technicians are of equal urgency. In this field the U.S.S.R. has carried out an experiment which is of great importance inasmuch as 1918 found that country in a position similar to that of many developing countries today. The U.S.S.R. opted boldly for training at two levels, exclusive of documentalists, for whom there are special institutes or courses, and also resorted to a number of forms of teaching seldom met with in other countries, such as correspondence courses, which are used not only for preliminary training but also for refresher courses for serving librarians. The fact that the country still lacks the full number of professionals needed and that rather more than 50 per cent of serving librarians have had no academic training makes it a testing ground of supreme interest for library education in the developing countries. The same need for professional training at several levels is also evident in the highly developed countries, above all in those which, like the United States, are introducing the techniques of documentation into their curricula. There is already talk of the need for an additional degree between the master's degree and the doctorate which would make it possible to qualify as a specialist in school libraries, for example, or in public libraries.[1] All these different attempts to reach a solution of the problem of librarians' training necessarily react on the forms of instruction and pose new problems with regard to the choice of method. In emergency situations, as in the U.S.S.R. and the developing countries, special consideration must be given to the possibility of using procedures such as correspondence courses and programmed instruction for the initial stages of training.[2]

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[1] L. Asheim, Education for librarianship, *Library quarterly*, vol. 25, 1955, p. 76-90. Although he depicts the state of library education in the United States from 1931 to 1955, his conclusions are of general interest.

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[1] J. Lancour, What next in the curriculum? *ALA bulletin*, vol. 86, 1962, p. 324-7; J. H. Shera, Dimensions of the master's program, *ALA bulletin*, vol. 58, 1964, p. 519-22.

[2] For the plans and programmes of the Eastern European countries, which generally start from the same assumptions, see, among others, H. Wieckowska, L'enseignement supérieur des bibliothécaires dans les pays de l'Europe Orientale, *Libri*, vol. 10, 1960, p. 53-8; also the articles by M. Rudomino, H. Wieckowska, F. J. Kase and H. Kunze on library education in the U.S.S.R., Poland, Czechoslovakia and Eastern Germany respectively. See also *Library trends*, October 1963; D. Jaroslav, University education for librarianship, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6, 1966, p. 257-65; and above all, M. Kóvacs, The education and training of librarians in Hungary, *Libri*, vol. 16, 1966, p. 18-48, and the proceedings and decisions of two conferences: Conférence Internationale sur la Formation Universitaire des Bibliothécaires, Prague, 1959 (*Comptes rendus, discussion et recommandation*, Prague, 1959); Konferenz der

The most difficult thing to settle in a training structure with different levels of qulification is unquestionably the mutual articulation of these grades. In countries such as the United States, it is a problem of concern to the members of the profession, but in the developing countries it becomes aggravated to the point of affecting the work of library personnel, the acceptability of qualifications, degrees and professional prestige. Key words in Lancour's view are 'integration, determination, co-operation, co-ordination'.[1] If they are apposite and desirable for the curriculum as such, they are no less so for the several levels of library training.

Bibliothekswissenschaftlichen Hochschulen und Institute in den Sozialistischen Ländern, 2, Berlin, 1962 (*Gegenstand und Methoden der Bibliothekswissenschaft unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Bibliothekswissenschaft als Hochschuldisziplin; Referate, Materialen, Diskussionen, Ergebnisse und Empfehlungen*, Leipzig, 1963).

[1] J. Lancour, What next in the curriculum? op. cit., p. 326.

Theory and practice

The question of whether theory or practice should be given precedence in the teaching of librarianship had already been posed at the very start of the present century. The answer differs according to the country and period involved: in some countries, e.g., the United States, a 'swing of the pendulum' within limits is observable in the degree of preference conceded to one over the other. In Europe it is a common practice to make in-service instructions the basis of the librarian's training with periodical grading examinations to determine candidates' fitness for retention or promotion in the profession. In such cases, the problem of theory versus practice either does not arise or is much less serious than in countries where academic library training is strong. Hence it is in the United States that the question has been most energetically debated and where the greatest oscillations as to the criterion to follow are observable. It is many years since Danton dealt with the subject at length and drew attention to the conflict between theoretical and practical training.[1] Following the Williamson report of 1923 there was a shift of opinion in the United States towards giving the profession a broader conceptual basis and the dominance of theory over practice was progressively accepted. Critical voices were raised to point out that the schools were not training their students in realistic terms and that the latter, on taking up their appointments, had to begin a course of instruction on the job, which was a burden on the libraries.[2] In some developing countries, training on the job has been proposed and is much in evidence in Latin America, for instance, where the practical side not only outweighs the theoretical, but at present maintains its preponderance far beyond the initial phases of professional training, where it was justified. The false argument that theory does not 'teach the job' explains the enthusiasm shown in some schools for in-service training in libraries, whose advantages and disadvantages are discussed further on.

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[1] J. P. Danton, *Education for librarianship*, op. cit., p. 24-7.

[2] L. Asheim, *Education for librarianship*, op. cit.

In the last few years there has been a general tendency to clinch the value of theory and to favour if not the unmistakable predominance of theory over practice at least a consistent precedence of theoretical principles over practical norms in the balance of the two elements.[1] The commonest standpoint is that the term 'balance' is the real key to the whole matter, but it is also stressed that what a librarian needs is a creative mind and that memorization and practice in routines are not the way to develop it. What is needed is for the librarian to be equipped to react to any given situation, so as to choose the best approach and reach the soundest solution, less because he has been taught about that specific situation than because he knows theories and principles, and has the required judgement to adapt and apply them in any type of situation. This argument has latterly been strengthened by the need to incorporate the techniques of information and problems of communication into library education to a greater or lesser degree: the speed with which these techniques and problems are evolving brings with it the danger that librarians whose training was essentially in practical skills may be left hopelessly unequal to the situation in a few years' time.

If there is a glaring need in the developed countries for the form of teaching in which theory is attaining a special dimension, it is no less so in countries differently placed. In the former type of country the need is felt because it is important to keep creative thinking in a state of permanent vitality among librarians for the attainment of new heights in the profession and the maintenance of leadership; in countries of the second group it is felt because, even though they may not be able to aspire to anything as ambitious as the former group, they sometimes lack even the kinds of structures and machinery to which prospective librarians can turn for examples worth imitating. The technical and organizational poorness of most of their libraries, preventing their use as exemplars of what library practice should be, makes it necessary for the schools of developing countries to put the emphasis on teaching the basic principles of the profession, to resist the temptation of pre-eminently practical instruction (particularly hazardous in the case of subjects such as cataloguing) and to equip their librarians for establishing the principles which will permit the replacement or improvement of the existing structures and the rescue of librarianship from its backward condition. Hence the importance in those schools and their professional ambience of adapting the techniques and principles developed in other countries and conversely the danger of blind imitation of those which are not easily adaptable, much less demonstrable.[1]

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[1] M. Boaz, USC library education institute summary, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 2, 1961, p. 68-76.

Granting that the theoretical basics of the profession and of its different branches should constitute the principal 'meat' of the teaching and that it is necessary to give students the librarian's aptitudes and attitudes rather than to make them experts in actual procedures, it is evident that their education must include a non-specialist general foundation which will make it possible for them to assimilate teaching on the lines indicated. In this connexion a grounding in the humanities seems indispensable as giving the librarian intellectual amplitude and suppleness, notions of synthesis and generalization, and above all, a buttress for an ethic which should also form part of his professional equipment. That is why Asheim aptly remarks that a library school's programme 'must include theory, practice and ethics'.[2]

This notion of the necessity of cultivating in the librarian imagination and the ability to judge and criticize reinforces the argument that it is essential to delimit the common core of all library education and make it the axis of library schools' curricula. Here again the importance of unity outweighs the consideration of diversity.

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[1] As an example of the importance of rating theory above practice in the sphere of cataloguing and classification, it is interesting to compare the standpoints and arguments of the authors of the articles listed below. Whereas, according to Lubetzky, librarians must be not only artisans but thinkers and critics of their art, for Frary the core curriculum must be first and foremost practical, with theory reserved for the senior classes: P. S. Dubkin, Cataloguing and classification, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 4, 1964, p. 231-44; C. J. Frary, Implications of present trends in technical services for library instruction, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 2, 1962, p. 132-43; S. Lubetzky, On the teaching of cataloguing, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 5, 1965, p. 255-8; H. J. Shera, On the teaching of cataloguing, *Journal of cataloguing and classification*, vol. 12, 1956, p. 130-2; R. F. Strout, Cataloguing in the GLS curriculum, *Journal of cataloguing and classification*, vol. 12, 1956, p. 123-9; M. F. Tauber, Teaching of cataloguing, *Journal of cataloguing and classification*, vol. 12, 1956, p. 130-2.

[2] M. Boaz, *USC library education*, op. cit., p. 75.

To confirm the necessity of a form of librarianship training aimed at producing creative and independent minds, two disquieting symptoms in the field of library science can be cited: the first is the paucity or the poor quality of the research works produced by librarians; and the second, the fact that, in the developing countries, leadership in the library field is almost always in the hands of men of letters or of other professions than librarianship.

Professional literature is mostly limited to the factual account of experience, often of mainly or exclusively local interest, with a proportionate scarcity of studies involving any rigorous investigation, e.g., in comparative library science. An example is the lack of studies on the real situation of libraries in the developing countries and the difficulties encountered there in preparing reasoned plans for their library organization. When library planning is envisaged in any of these countries, it is exceptional to find adequately researched and drafted reports on reading habits and levels, or on the nature, structure and state of the library services, all of which must be known for the diagnostic phase which is a part of any planning operation.[1]

The library school instructors themselves exemplify these limitations. In general terms, they do not always make any appreciable contribution to the advancement of their subject, with the result that professional leadership passes from the library schools to the major libraries (which are often under the direction of non-librarian intellectuals) and it is the latter who make the experiments and work for the broadening of the profession's horizons. Furthermore, as the library school professors have usually had no training in teaching they do not keep abreast of new methods and do not adjust or check their programmes. The immediate consequence is a permanent handicap imposed on students passing out of the schools and that is why in most countries, whether or not they are advanced in the field of librarianship, the training of heads of libraries has often bypassed the library schools. Also tying in with this situation is librarianship's poverty in established scientific and technical principles. The books dealing with the theory of librarianship are few and poor, and the collected writings of Pierce Butler (whose now classical *Introduction to library science* dates from 1933) are to this day the most lucid approach to librarianship in its strictest sense. It is interesting to recall that Butler was connected with the Graduate Library School of Chicago at a time when that school was engaged on one of the most significant experiments yet made towards the renovation and elevation of the teaching of librarianship. This suggests that renovated teaching and sound theory are natural yoke-fellows, and that the schools where this happy combination obtains are the ones liable to make history in the evolution of library education. It is they which exemplify Danton's assertion that a 'library school cannot direct its energies exclusively to traditional, current library needs and practices; it must in addition promote the new, investigate the old, re-examine the accepted, experiment with the untried and in sum serve as a leader in its field'.[1]

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[1] C. V. Penna, Planning library services, *Unesco bulletin for libraries*, vol. XXI, no. 2, 1967, p. 60-92 (see p. 63-4, 79).

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[1] J. P. Danton, *Education for librarianship*, op. cit., p. 13.

Teaching methods

Teaching methods for librarianship have remained almost unchanged for years. If, for example, we compare Danton's list in *Education for librarianship*, published in 1949, with the methods mentioned in works on the same subject since that date, we find that there is very little that is new and that in many cases we are merely presented with variants of some of the methods already known or with adaptations of methods used in other disciplines; strictly speaking, library science has not worked out instructional procedures of its own. The procedures currently in widest use are the following:

The expository method. Instruction in class.

Demonstration, commentary, interrogation, conversation and discussion. Discussion in class, reading and commentary of texts; contacts with experienced librarians; formal lectures and talks; 'round tables'; institutes; symposia; panels; practical study groups.

From observation to investigation. Observation, direct experience and analysis. Visits, practical work, laboratories, in-service training, problems, case studies.

Research and written work. Monographs, bibliographies, theses, seminars.

What follows is not an exposition of the methods as such: they are well known and there is didactic bibliography available for consultation on each. What are here prescribed are observations relating to education for librarianship and based on the personal experience of the writer or of colleagues in the same field. A warning must, however, be given that each school will need to adapt these observations to its own situation and the environment in which it operates. For example, for the history of books a school which possesses or has access to a good collection of old books will teach in the same way as one which has only a few good facsimiles available or not even that.

Similarly, in reference work and bibliography, methods, procedures and practical techniques will depend on the wealth and variety of the reference works and bibliographies available for practical work and research.

THE EXPOSITORY METHOD

The class lesson

The class lesson is still the most common form of teaching for almost all subjects in a library school. The tendency, observable for some years past in certain educational circles, to depreciate exposition by the teacher to the point even of denying it the character of a major formation medium has led to the adoption of certain extreme positions in doctrine or practice, which have left the students of many schools too much to their own devices over the acquisition of their cultural and technical equipment. The difficulties experienced by libraries as regards levels of training and above all over the limited ability to use sound judgement and reason evinced by young graduates have provoked a salutary reaction and it is not easy to subscribe today to the old idea in the Williamson report, that making the least possible use of oral classes was a healthy symptom in a school. Moreover, if general agreement has been reached on the superior importance to the librarian of imagination, creative capacity and judgement over mere procedure or routine, there appears to be a need to restore the lesson to its proper importance and, thereby, the importance of the teacher who really teaches. Thus, the developing countries, which often are not in a position to resort to a wide range of procedures and have not a great quantity or variety of teaching aids at their disposal, should be the least eager to deprive the lesson in class of all or any of its importance. However, this is not always the case.[1] Elizabeth W. Stone, in a lucid study of the teaching of administration, has put the matter in its proper perspective and quotes Metcalf's remark that if the teacher is good, the lesson is one of the most effective forms of presentation of general principles.[1] The lesson can be an excellent medium of instruction if two essential conditions are fulfilled: that it be used for the genuinely theoretical part of the teaching and the subjects in which practical work plays a minor part, and secondly, that the teachers have the qualities required for giving it: sound training, synthesizing ability, expository talent, ease of communication and professional experience. It is not always the best method, but on occasion may be. Whether it is the best method depends on the subject; the most important thing is that the teachers using it—who are in the majority—should be convinced that it can and should be supplemented by or combined with other methods, one of these being the setting of reading assignments to be commented later in class. The idea that, with only a series of reading assignments—often mutually contradictory—and comments on them in class, young people will be able, on their own, to subject these texts to the required analysis and criticism and draw valid conclusions is in most cases a delusion. We shall return to this point later.

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[1] In this connexion, the former cast of mind was nevertheless in evidence in the contribution of the professors who met in Medellín, despite its importance and excellence, as witness the reflections on methodology in some of the background papers, notably in those on bibliography and on methodology of research. See: *Plan de tres años para el estudio de la preparación de los bibliotecarios en la América Latina, Medellín, 1963-65. Mesa de estudio de la segunda parte, Medellín 20 a 31 agosto, 1964. Recomendaciones y documentos de trabajo.* Medellín 1965. (Seminars, short courses and meetings).

The core subjects are the ones for which the lesson procedure is most advantageous and in particular for the introduction to library science. This is the most appropriate subject for providing the student with the fundamental concepts for his profession, introducing him to study and research, and confronting him with the general range of problems relating to the function of the library in society. An important consideration with regard to this introductory subject is how far the beginner can assimilate all the principles and information indicated and how the teacher can give him his start towards the development of the critical attitude and power of judgement, without recourse to the lesson first and foremost. Experience shows that students need not only to be guided by the professor, but to be enriched by his ideas, and this in no way encroaches on their freedom of thought. They will then be in a position, later on—when their knowledge ripens and experience is added to it—to decide for themselves and possibly reject, amend, or simply accept the ideas taught them. Of course the marked and healthy inclination of modern youth to think independently and to call in question the knowledge, experience and opinions of their elders, makes it unnecessary to encourage that attitude as in other ages. On the other hand it does most urgently need canalization to prevent its running wild and going to waste. An example of the need of the formal lesson for the more theoretical subjects occurs, in the case of advanced students, in the treatment of the principles of library science. Just as a partial exposition of them is essential in the introduction to library science so when the students are about to terminate their studies and have acquired greater knowledge and experience, it will be well to recapitulate the same principles and re-examine them in greater depth. There is an obvious need for a 'summing up' paralleling the 'introduction', which will allow the professor to assemble all the concepts acquired, the diverse elements of the whole, so as to paint a complete picture of the profession and, above all, to assign them their proper place and status within the context of modern library science. Only thus will the proper priorities be established between technique and theory, between procedures and the use of judgement, and between static tradition and creative imagination. Here, again, the formal lesson is clearly a procedure for which there is no substitute. More direct intervention and (why not say it?) greater involvement on the part of the professor is salutary. For that matter it is obvious that the students expect such 'involvement' when they feel that the teacher has something to tell them which is not in the literature or can demonstrate powers of synthesis and judgement which will stimulate them in turn to a more subtle use of their minds.

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[1] E. W. Stone, Methods and materials for teaching library administration, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6, 1965, p. 34-42.

The formal lesson loses some, but not all, of its value in the more 'technological' subjects (e.g., cataloguing and classification), especially in countries whose good general organization makes practice in real libraries permissible. But even here the lesson is necessary, more particularly to correct the deficiencies of a partial view, which are inevitable when students are working on actual cases that naturally suppose certain limitations, as explained below with reference to in-service training.

DEMONSTRATION, COMMENTARY, INTERROGATION, CONVERSATION AND DISCUSSION

Discussion in class

The discussion in class is intimately linked with the formal lesson and in general the two procedures are used in combination. It may be a discussion in the strict sense or only an exposition of different ideas. It may be on students' own reading or experiences and run by them; or it may consist in discussing and commenting set reading and be run by the professor. Its basis is usually passages set for reading beforehand by the professor which very often give divergent and sometimes conflicting views on the same subject. The professor commonly opens the proceedings with a summary of the matter to be discussed or elucidated. The students then give an account of their experience or what they have read and the conclusions they draw. The teacher, who must have his class very carefully planned and not leave the run of the expositions and debate, if any, to chance, guides the students, trying to get the best out of them and constraining them to bring out the most interesting aspects of the theme or the most relevant parts of the set reading. In conclusion he usually gives his opinion and either defends one of the viewpoints expounded, or rejects them all and expounds his own. He may also leave the final decision to the students, but this is the least satisfactory solution.

The discussion procedure has had enthusiastic support from many teachers of librarianship and in some countries, such as the United States of America, is widely used in library schools. Indeed, it seems to have obtained greater acceptance than it deserves. It calls for teachers having both a great knowledge of the speciality and its literature, and a high degree of objectivity.

If the readings selected or the experiences utilized are deficient in variety and interest, the sessions become monotonous and of little attraction. Two other conditions are essential for effectiveness: first, the availability of an abundant and accessible literature on the theme or themes, and, secondly, that the group be homogeneous. The difficulties in connexion with the first consideration are fairly notorious, for in countries where library science is in process of development the literature of the subject is not usually easy to obtain and in addition is frequently in unfamiliar languages, which means prior translation of the material so that all students can use it. A point to be strongly emphasized is that this handicap is much more serious when it comes to the setting of reading matter for a discussion than in respect of the general reading matter for the course, since in the former case the material, in addition to its effectiveness for teaching and scientific or technical rigour, must also have other qualities such as brevity and interest, offer various views on the same matter, etc., sometimes even views that the teacher does not share, so that the discussion may be lively and interesting and the subject examined comprehensively.

The greatest danger, as Danton has pointed out,[1] is that the discussion may degenerate into the mere parroting of someone else's ideas, or a simple recitation of facts and situations which do not engage the student's interest, or only slightly, and about which he often knows little. The discussion then becomes pointless repetition.

Another danger which should be mentioned is the tendency of some teachers not to wind up the discussion themselves, sometimes for fear of imposing their own ideas on the students and curbing the latter's reasoning, thereby falling into one of the faults alleged against the formal lesson, namely, of giving an *ex cathedra* opinion or judgement, which may seem to the students to close the matter. The result of this tendency in a class discussion is to leave many questions open without their having been thoroughly analysed and argued out—and the discussion of the theme concludes with the student uncertain not merely of what the teacher thinks, but—which is more serious—of what is good and what is bad, what is acceptable and what is not in all that has been said by himself and his fellow students.

As regards prerequisites for profitable participation in discussion classes, students must unquestionably be at a fairly advanced point in their training. Metcalf and Martin[2] give well-reasoned warnings of the dangers of introducing students to such discussions prematurely. Martin goes so far as to describe this as 'intellectual irresponsibility', while Metcalf considers class discussions dangerous, especially in the first phase of training.

The discussion procedure can be used for any subject, but is better suited to the technical ones, such as cataloguing, classification and administration, where the comparative study of codes, systems and cases is usually profitable and stimulating to students.

The procedure of commented readings in class warrants a paragraph of its own. It is used less in library science than in other specialities, but it may give excellent results, especially for passages with more than purely 'library' connotations. The professor does the reading and commenting himself, while encouraging the students to intervene with questions or points. The most important feature of the method (which gives the best results with short passages) is that the professor teaches the student, by actual example, how to extract from a worthwhile text all the elements that enrich it and give it distinction, exhibiting those of the ideas it expresses that give it real importance. For example, the procedure may be used to advantage in classes on the notion of bibliography when commented readings in class of the descriptions and definitions of this branch of library science culled from the most significant works on the subject from the sixteenth century onwards will enable the development of the concept to be followed, in a clear synthesis, sometimes far better than from reading more important works. Another example, from the reference sector, is the preface 'A un diccionario enciclopédico abreviado' by José Ortega y Gasset,[1] which is one of the most lucid expositions of the general idea of an encyclopaedia ever written, but which calls for careful, commented reading if students are to get all it has to give them.

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[1] J. P. Danton, *Education for librarianship*, op. cit., p. 27-8.

[2] K. D. Metcalf, *et al.*, *The program of instruction in library schools*, p. 38; Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois Press, 1943; L. Martin, Shall library schools teach administration? *College and research libraries*, vol. 6, 1944-45, p. 335-40.

Contacts with experienced librarians

Relations with experienced librarians may take either of two forms: interviews with librarians and visits by librarians to classes, to give talks and to converse and exchange ideas with the students.

These are of very limited use in the developing countries owing to the paucity of professional librarians capable of handling these contacts adequately and because the results of their experience as librarians, far from being positively instructive *per se*, usually call for critical review by the professor in class. The interview, as an inquiry medium, needs to be very well prepared and to conform to the common norms recommended in the relevant pedagogical works. The often critical situation of the libraries makes the visit to the class preferable to the interview. However, as Williamson has pointed out, these methods have little relevance for teaching purposes and are only of interest in so far as they enable students to meet and listen to prominent members of the profession.[2]

Lectures and papers

Lectures in the traditional sense of the term, i.e., as proceedings open to the public, where one person expounds a theme, generally without

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1. J. Ortega y Gasset, A un diccionario enciclopédico abreviado, in: *Obras completas*, 2nd ed., vol. 6, p. 358-67, Madrid, Revista de Occidente, 1951. This is the introduction to the 1st edition of the *Diccionario enciclopédico abreviado*, Madrid, 1943.
2. C. C. Williamson, *Training for library service*, p. 45, New York, Carnegie Corporation, 1923.

inviting any audience participation, are gradually being abandoned, especially in the schools. Of course in library education they were never widespread and were used only in special cases. The formality with which they are customarily invested is making them progressively less adequate as a medium as they do not facilitate communication between the speaker and his audience. In library schools the paper-reading procedure is more appropriate.[1]

The reading of a paper resembles the lecture up to a point in that it is handled by one person expounding a theme, but differs from it in several respects. It is devoid of all outward formality and takes place before an audience which is usually much smaller and deeply interested in the subject. The students and faculty of the school always attend, and when the reading is concluded, they give their views and may even start a debate or discussion among themselves or with the visiting public. Again, the themes which may be discussed are far more varied than in a lecture; the object being to communicate, to inform, more than to dissert. Accordingly a paper may equally well be an account of the experience acquired on a fellowship, a report on the results of an investigation or the conclusions of a congress, or a critique of a book or review concerned with the speciality. The great advantage of the paper is that it does not need any special announcements, it may be given in any lecture room in the building and it enables the students themselves to join in, as perhaps they would not feel like doing with a lecturer speaking from a rostrum. Moreover, a certain type of paper may be given by the advanced students, either prepared on their own or working with a professor. In this way they will be initiated into public exposition and taught the first drills for an activity that they often find intimidating and which they usually neglect.

FROM OBSERVATION TO INVESTIGATION. OBSERVATION, DIRECT EXPERIENCE AND ANALYSIS

Visits

These are of limited usefulness, but in countries which are only developing their libraries and where additionally it is not common for children in primary and secondary schools to be taught how to use a library, the visit is of much greater interest since it opens fresh horizons to the prospective librarians and shows them facilities of whose very existence they had never conceived: services, installation in buildings, documents and materials not to be found in their own schools. In other words, visits give students the general picture and exhibit the limitations and developmental possibilities of the *milieu* where they live and for which they are being trained.

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[1] J. P. Danton, *Education for librarianship*, op. cit., p. 68-70, 74-5.

Visits usually take place without any previous preparation and amount more or less to an inspection of what the library has and does. As its technical procedures and services very often do not square with the standard practice taught in the school, students lose their bearings and their questions and criticisms may even create awkward situations. Moreover, the rapid tour of the departments of the library seldom has a great impact on the student, for his attention is caught almost exclusively by what is unfamiliar to him and what impresses him as strange in that *milieu*: rare books, very special collections, new apparatus. For a visit to be useful, prior preparation is needed and very possibly some reading. In addition the tour should be conducted by the school's professors. They will have the co-operation of the librarians, but should avoid leaving the essentials of the exposition to the latter. Experience shows that many visits turn out badly through discrepancies between what the library staff talk about and what the student is interested in at that point of his training, or because of the tendency of librarians to expatiate on technical and administrative minutiae or to present as indisputable distorted versions of practices, codes and systems, leaving the student in doubt as to the soundness and efficacy of what he sees when he compares it with what he is being taught.

A check is needed of the results of visits. Each should be followed by a class session for airing ideas and criticisms or by individual reports from all students.

Practical work (laboratories)

The practical work done by the students, with or without the direct supervision of the professor, is also frequently called laboratory work. The term 'laboratory' designates a selection of books or material assembled in a particular part of the school and disposed in such a way that the student can carry out practical operations with it. This type of instruction is especially suitable for subjects dealing with the handling and processing of documents, for instance, cataloguing, classification and reference. The ideal is for schools to have laboratories installed as permanent entities. The lack of permanent laboratories in the schools of developing countries is notorious. It is current practice for the school's library (and not all schools have them) or the library of the institution to which the school is attached (faculty, national library, etc.) to supply the material for practical work, either delivering it to the professor for use in his class-room, or permitting a limited number of students to work in the library's departments either at special times or during the hours when they are open to the public. The difficulties of this system are obvious. The material is assembled each time a practical class is to be held, and the cases for study or types of work are set out according to the requirements of the moment. Thus there is no experimental collection and often the books or other materials have to be selected according to what is available at the time, regardless of whether the teacher considers them suitable for the requirements of his course. This is particularly noticeable in cataloguing and classification, where the range of cases and situations which can be presented is subordinated to what material is available in the supplying library. For reference work and bibliography, the problem is more serious. The library usually cannot remove the material from its shelves and in that case there are two alternatives. The first is to lend the class the least important, least used works or only part of them: a particular volume of an encyclopaedia, a little used bibliography, an old edition of a yearbook, etc. This limits the student's experimental searches, reduces the professor to asking questions to which the answers are obvious, and further impedes the use of several reference works at a time to explore several lines for a solution which is not necessarily predetermined. The second alternative is for students to do their practical work where the collections are kept in the actual working area of the reference librarians. If this alternative is adopted, it will give rise to great difficulties as a result of the inconvenience and hardship to the staff and the public caused by the presence of a group of students and professors hampering the librarians in their normal daily work.

On these grounds, it is considered essential to equip the library schools with laboratories, whatever the level to which it is sought to train the students. The latter will thus have the use of selected material, ordered rationally to match the gradual increase in the magnitude of the difficulties to be overcome, or the complexity of the cases to be settled.

They will have what is needed for checking their work themselves (catalogues, guides, lists, etc.), and above all, their practical training will not be reduced to a limited number of hours, with no possibility of carrying on the work themselves or with their instructors, because the material supplied for the class must be returned to the library.

Of course, the installation and upkeep of these laboratories are costly, involving the provision of suitable premises, special bibliographical material and documents, and library furniture and other equipment. The financial aspect may even be crucial in the case of reference works, which are very expensive. Nevertheless library schools should make every effort to start their own laboratories and keep them going as they are the only effective means of solving the problem of practical training, in the sense of making it freer and less subject to time-table requirements which tend to restrict practical work on library premises to those aspects of the training for which it is indispensable.

Cataloguers and classifiers often wonder whether the actual material (books, records, etc.) could not be replaced by lists which would solve many difficulties in developing countries and could represent a substitute for the laboratory. Experience shows that lists can be used, but only in particular cases, and that there is no substitute for the actual material. For example, in a cataloguing course practical work with lists is appropriate for author identification and the use of the norms regarding individual and corporate authors. In classification they can be used in the initial sessions on subject headings and systematic classifications. But lists should never be used as the only, or even the principal, medium for practical work. They can only be used in the introductory courses to present, at the first stage, a less complex outline of certain themes like subject headings which are difficult for the beginner to understand. In this particular case, a shortened list of references and cross-references should avoid confusion. However, within a brief space there should be a change-over from lists to the actual material to avoid artificiality in the practice operations. It should be noted that the use of lists is less easy and more dangerous in classification than in cataloguing.[1]

There has also been discussion of the form to be taken by practical work in reference work and bibliography, especially in general reference work, where no decision has yet been reached as to whether it is better to study the methods used in reference work or the reference works themselves. According to Shores, principles, methodology and materials should constitute a whole, the professor placing the accent on theory or practice as his own concept of the subject or his students' preferences dictate.[1] Thus practical work is essential, but the vastness of the subject and the difficulty of rapidly acquiring a thorough knowledge of the reference sources make it necessary for much of the work to be done by the students on their own. To facilitate this, the professors prepare lists of the reference works which the students will definitely have to know. This system has been much questioned and even today no final agreement has yet been reached on whether it is good or bad. The figure given by Shores (10,000 works identified, of which 270, divided into 81 types, are covered by courses) is frightening as regards the possibilities of acquiring a satisfactory working knowledge of them. Again, Bonk made some surprising discoveries, in a survey carried out in 1961 in North American library schools, about the lack of agreement as to which are the really important reference works which the student must know. Taking thirty-five schools with general reference courses and twenty-two with specialized courses on reference work in social or human science, the correspondences found were 9.7 per cent for a gross total of 1,202 general reference titles, 7 per cent for 1,500 reference titles on human sciences and 5 per cent for 2,000 titles on social sciences.[2]

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[1] For the use of practical exercises in cataloguing and classification, see, in addition to the works quoted in footnote 1 on page 83, M. Boaz, The conferences that were, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 4, 1964, p. 192-5.

Two conclusions may be drawn from this: first, there should be lists of reference works to be studied and they should be kept continually up to date, but they should be used only as a guide and aid for the teacher; secondly, the structure and handling of the works selected must be absorbed through practice in their use in the 'laboratory', partly under instruction and partly in the students' own time.[3]

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[1] L. Shores, We who teach reference, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 5, 1965, p. 238-47.

[2] W. J. Bonk, The core curriculum in the reference and bibliography course, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 2, 1961, p. 28-33.

[3] For the greater or lesser prominence of the practical exercises and laboratories referred to, see the collection of studies published under the title of: Teaching and practice reference service, in *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 3, 1963, p. 171-87, 212, 238-9, in particular the excellent paper by K. G. Harris, Reference service today and tomorrow: objectives, practices, needs and trends, p. 175-97; M. Boaz, The conferences that were, op. cit.; W. J. Bonk, The core reference course, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 4, 1964, p. 196-207. As regards reference works for a general course, the developing countries—precisely because they lack reference works of their own, or at times even in their own languages—have a chance to prepare lists which are much more balanced, less local and more varied than the lists for

Practical work inside or outside the laboratory can be useful for other core subjects of the librarianship curriculum, but seems more evidently so in those mentioned above.

In-service training

In-service training, advocated by Williamson, has lost much of its former importance.[1] Danton points out its disadvantages when used as the sole means of training librarians (apprenticeship), but is strongly in favour of it when used for instruction after graduation (internship).[2] In countries only developing their libraries there is a great tendency to use this method during the academic course to supplement instruction in the schools. What is more, the schools frequently receive requests from badly organized libraries for students to come to train there by reorganizing these libraries and, above all, by recataloguing and reclassifying their material. Again, not a few professors and librarians are seeking to have apprentice service included among the students' obligations. As training, it undoubtedly has some advantages. The student rapidly familiarizes himself with the library 'climate', his future professional setting, which aids comprehension and is a help to successful study. This is borne out by the differences noted between the students already working in libraries and the others as regards ability to grasp and resolve practical situations studied in class. Moreover their hours of actual library work help to improve their training and to consolidate the knowledge acquired in class-room and laboratory. But against these advantages there are some disadvantages. In the first place, if the libraries are not well organized, as is frequently the case, they cannot be used. This makes the number of suitable libraries very small and between them they have to cater for all librarianship students. Secondly, even if libraries are well or even fairly well organized, they introduce many variations into their technical procedures and services, imposed on them by some

countries or languages where the output is large. For a prototype the reader can consult the list given in the article by J. E. Sabor and J. M. Martinez, Referencia: trabajo de base presentado a la Segunda Mesa para el studio de la preparación profesional de bibliotecarios en la América Latina, in: *Plan de tres años para el estudio de la preparatión de los bibliotecarios en la América Latina, Medellín, 1963-1965. Mesa de estudio de la segunda parte*, op. cit., 11 p.

[1] L. Asheim, *La preparación de los bibliotecarios en los Estados Unidos de América* (translated from English by H. Cáceres Ramos and M. A. de Mesquita Barros), p. 10 and 11, Washington, D.C., Unión Panamericana, 1964 (Cuadernos bibliotecológicos, 19).

[2] J. P. Danton, *Education for librarianship*, op. cit., p. 71-2.

special characteristic of their own or by long-standing traditions which they cannot break or, more simply, because a limited budget precludes their taking advantage of the very latest technical advances for their work. Consequently, 'apprentice' students have to accommodate what they are being taught in class to the actualities of the place where they work, which tends to confusion and lack of confidence. Lastly, since much of the direction and checking of the work done is the responsibility of the library staff, who are often not teachers and, in addition, are usually overworked, the students may be left to themselves and the library suffers through the distraction of its staff.

The question is undoubtedly a knotty one inasmuch as the libraries in developing countries complain as much as, or more than, those in the more advanced countries of the lack of practical knowledge and realism evinced by newly qualified librarians, and wonder, with some justification, whether the library schools are really training their students for the practice of the profession.[1] From that angle, learning on the job or in-service training is desirable, but always as a secondary didactic procedure and provided that no discrepancy arises between the academic instruction and what is learned on the job which might puzzle or dismay the student.[2]

Problems

The traditional use of problems has been as a subsidiary or complementary form of practical work for cataloguing, classification, reference work, bibliography, selection and above all administration. Students investigate their problems and work out the solutions unassisted in or out of class, using any materials and elements they elect. The solution may be given orally or in writing and in either case is followed by the teacher's analysis and criticism.

There are two types of problem: those with a specific answer already known to the teacher—e.g., in cataloguing, classification and reference work—and those which allow the student to take his own decision which may or may not agree with what the teacher considers the best answer, but which can also be correct or respectable. This kind is found mainly in administration.

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[1] See the conclusions of the Library Forum held in 1960-61 by the University of Illinois Library School, published under the title: Are library schools educating for librarianship? *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 2, 1961, p. 5-19.

[2] For an in-service training programme in a school close to a well-organized library, see Texas University, Graduate School of Library Science, *The internship idea. . . . Review and evaluation of the internship program, February 1954 to June 1962*, Austin, Tex., 1963.

Problems are usually made up by the professor. He tries to set up the difficulties which he foresees as liable to face the student in his professional life, complicates situations, adds details which force the student to consult particular sources, and lays trails which may be true or false. The important point is for the student to use reference sources, observe, investigate and finally exercise his wits to reach the solution wanted. The problem procedure has been sharply criticized on the grounds of lack of realism, with the student setting himself to unravel hypothetical reference problems with abnormal characteristics and bearing no resemblance to those with which he will have to deal in real life, or wasting hours thinking up solutions to administrative problems which never arise in the libraries of his part of the world. The result is discouragement and loss of interest, with the air getting too thin to breathe, since the solutions, for lack of realism, not only do not help class and practice work but complicate both unnecessarily. We shall see later how far from simple it is to implement this view as regards training in schools where library science is only in process of development.

In order to avoid the disadvantages described, the problem procedure has largely been replaced by case studies, mainly as a result of the efforts and experiments carried out since 1951 by the staff of the Simmons College School of Library Science.

Case studies

The case study is one of the methods most deserving of attention at the present time. This is because it has begun to be used for a variety of subjects. In some of them (e.g., reference work) it is a 'direct experience' procedure while in others (e.g., administration), it involves the use of observation and deduction but it invariably offers itself as an improvement on traditional forms and in particular as an admirable substitute for the 'problem'.

It is over twenty years since the case study began to be used in the teaching of administration. From that day on, and over many years of experiment, it continued to win adherents and ended by spreading to other subjects of the curriculum. Contrasting it with the 'problem', Lowell Martin writes: 'This does not mean using working situations deductively as illustrations of points made or principles expounded—

a technique now used widely. It means inductive use of case studies to lead the student to his own discovery of underlying principles—a kind of forcing of experience. Law schools use this approach almost exclusively; they do not give the student a definition of justice. . . . They use cases as records of experience out of which the student builds his own concept of the law. The Graduate Business School at Harvard has used the case method extensively in administrative instruction. The Harvard example underlines two requisites of this approach: complete and substantial cases are required, which may necessitate use of field-workers to obtain all the facts and conditions in a case; and the instruction period is a lengthy one. None the less the method has the decided advantage of facilitating self-discovery on the part of a student and in the end this may be the only way of teaching anything.'[1] In Martin's view, with the case study as against the conventional treatment of the subject, covering only the loan, acquisition, preparation and care of material, plus library organization, a further step can be taken and a knowledge of the administrative process arrived at.

The most enthusiastic advocacy of the case study comes from Kenneth R. Shaffer, who used it himself as professor of library administration in the Simmons College School of Library Science. He had found the conventional methods in his field satisfactory and gives a reason for this which needs to be kept in mind when extending the case study procedure to other subjects: library administration is not a subject bounded wholly by library science and draws on general administration, as happens with any other professional sector of the economy.[2]

The case study is always of a real situation, as opposed to the problem, which is fictitious. To get the example, investigations are made in libraries, and, changing only the names of people and places, the incident is related as it actually occurred, after a number of questions are propounded to secure answers with a direct bearing on the essential points of the case. After this briefing the students devote some time to direct observation, reading, and getting explanations from the professor, and finally, with their own notes to guide them, attend a discussion class at which each gives his own opinions, ideas and solutions—of which, indeed, there are often more than one, as in real life. When the scope of the case warrants it the students' solutions take the form of written reports. Shaffer calculates that about fifty short and long case studies can be investigated in a complete course. The main advantage of this procedure, in his view, is that it ripens the student's intellect, which is of far greater importance than giving him a collection of information.

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[1] L. Martin, Shall library schools teach administration? *College and research libraries*, vol. 6, 1944-45, p. 335-40, 345.

[2] K. R. Shaffer, The case method in library education, *College and research libraries*, vol. 20, 1958, p. 487-90; Personnel administration: the case method of teaching, *Bulletin of the Medical Library Association*, vol. 53, 1965, p. 546-51.

Case studies in administration have been a great success in some North American schools. However, if the case study procedure is exported to other countries, there are some factors which threaten its success. The first is its excessive cost, since the preparation of a case study involves a process which begins with the student's visits to libraries and only ends when the example itself, after being tried out on a number of courses, is proved satisfactory. Next is the length of the course, which must be much longer than normal to permit the completion of an adequate number of case studies. Third is the heavy demand on the professor who, in addition to acquainting himself with the case and working out valid solutions, must be equipped to guide the discussion and evaluate the case-notes and written reports. Finally there is the lack, in many countries, of libraries of sufficient size and quality for the actual cases they present to be of interest and not merely give rise to invariably adverse criticisms or obvious solutions.[1]

The second subject in which case studies have been tried out extensively is reference work. Thomas J. Galvin, professor at the Simmons College School of Library Science, is equally critical of the direct-question and of the problem procedures for practical reference work. In his view, centring courses on representative reference works is not satisfactory and the balance must be restored between reference material and reference processes.[2] The 'text-class-problem' formula conduces to excessive detail and memorization and dehumanizes the reference process. It is not a matter simply of locating information, but of understanding the network of relations and situations engendered by all reference consultation.

Galvin does not suggest using case studies exclusively in reference work, but does argue for centring the course on them and using traditional methods only as supplementary forms of instruction.[1]

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[1] An excellent and very complex case study is in: H. Birnbaus, The case of Eulalia Brown, *Library journal*, vol. 83, 1958, p. 2789-94. Shaffer issues a series entitled *Case studies in library administration*, published in Hamden, Conn., 1959. These are collections of cases. In certain instances, some possible solutions are also given and the bibliography utilized is included.

[2] T. J. Galvin, The case technique in education for reference service, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 3, 1963, p. 251-63; Teaching reference with case studies: an interim report, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 5, 1965, p. 234-7.

The use of case studies in reference courses has not aroused great enthusiasm. It has been pointed out, with justice, that the cases cited by Galvin relate less to actual reference work than to the administration of reference services, and hinge more on procedural questions than on problems of information retrieval or knowledge of reference sources. Moreover, Galvin is aware that, unlike case studies in administration where there may be more than one acceptable solution, in reference work there is almost always one solution only, which means that his own criticism of the problem procedure (only two possibilities: right answer, wrong answer) become equally applicable to the case study.

The criticism has on occasion been caustic, and the case study seems much less usable in the reference than in the administration course. All the difficulties already mentioned as regards the effective use of case studies for administration courses in countries where library science is merely developing recur in this case. But leaving them aside, there is, additionally, marked scepticism about the efficacy of the case study as such, and the conviction that the study and knowledge of the actual reference works is still the heart of all reference courses.[2]

RESEARCH AND WRITTEN WORK

Monographs, bibliographies, theses

The problem of research in the field of librarianship has been the subject of studies and discussions in which attention has been drawn to its advantages and disadvantages and doubt has been expressed, even, as to its necessity or importance.[3]

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[1] T. J. Galvin, *Problems in reference service; case studies in method and policy*, New York, R. R. Bowker, 1965. Collection of thirty case studies, with the analyses of the first two following them.

[2] Reference service teaching in general and criticism of Galvin's book in particular have elicited observations of great interest on methods in the teaching of this subject from a number of reference librarians and reference-service teachers. Below are cited some of the most important articles, outstanding among them being the first: T. Freides, Will the real reference problem please stand up? *Library journal*, vol. 91, 1966, p. 2008-12; K. Harris, Reference service today and tomorrow, op. cit.; A. H. Horn, Planning the course of reference and bibliography, *Library journal*, vol. 86, 1961, p. 1537-9; W. A. Katz, In the reference arena, *Library journal*, vol. 90, 1965, p. 2532-4; A reference encounter, *Library journal*, vol. 90, 1965, p. 1818-24.

[3] See the analysis of the different research methods in library service in L. Carnovsky, Methodology in research and applications, *Library journal*, vol. 6, 1957, p. 234-6.

The question has two different aspects which need to be considered separately: the first concerns the importance to librarians of research and its techniques as a training subject, and the second the possibilities of applying these techniques after the conclusion of the academic training either for the purposes of library work or for the production of written works on library science themes.

As regards the teaching of research and its techniques in library schools, the importance accorded it will depend on the professional training objectives selected and the scope of the curriculum. If documentation is treated as a part of library science and if library schools are to train documentalists, it is obvious that the study of the principles and methods of research, especially bibliographical methods, is so important as to warrant the provision of a special course or courses for teaching the subject. On the other hand, if it is considered that research will be simply one more medium for the training of the students, or an instrument with limited uses in a librarian's work, the teaching of it should be limited to a single course or might form part of another course, e.g., general bibliography.

In countries where library science is at an advanced stage, there seems to be felt less need for the library schools to undertake the teaching of research in the form of independent courses in the subject. In most cases, students have been grounded in research techniques and methods in the preceding cycles of education and a few general ideas included in one of the bibliography courses equip them sufficiently for the purposes of the school.[1] But in countries where library science is still in the developing stage, training in the methodology of research is frequently not started below university level and there are even some universities which do not give it the importance it deserves. That is why, apart from any consideration of applying them for library science itself, it is essential that instruction in research methods should figure as a separate subject in library school curricula in such countries.[2] Moreover,

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1. B. Denison, One magic word: research, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 3, 1962, p. 93-105. The authoress investigated 329 North American schools of librarianship and found that only the twelve most important included courses on methods of research.
2. L. Arce, El curso de metodología de la investigación; estado actual y sugerencias sobre objetivos, contenido y metodología, in: *Plan de tres años para el estudio de la preparación de los bibliotecarios en la América Latina, Medellín, 1963-1965. Mesa de estudio de la segunda parte*, op. cit., 22 p. In this interesting and useful basic work, the authoress gives a digest of syllabus contents for this speciality in a range of schools in America and Europe. For Latin America, she reports the existence of courses in six schools out of a total of thirty-three.

experience would seem to indicate a need for two courses. The first, at the initial stage, at the beginning of the first year, would teach or refine the techniques which students should already have practised at secondary level, ranging from satisfactory précis-writing to planning and drafting a short monograph and from a simple bibliographical search to correct distribution of the parts of a footnote quotation. The second course would provide a detailed exposition of the principal methods which may be used in library science (historical, descriptive, experimental, statistical, etc.) and of the procedures by which they can be applied. It would also include the compilation of bibliographies and the drafting of theses.

The object of these course is to enable the student to measure up to the exigencies of his academic training, to give him tools for work as a reference librarian or bibliographer in a library, and in addition to equip him for the continued pursuit of research throughout his professional life.

These studies and the use made of them during academic training will yield monographs, bibliographies and theses.

Monographs, which may treat of the results of a bibliographical research or of observation in a library or give an account of an experience undergone, are of the greatest importance for initiating students into intellectual work, stimulating their interest in research and accustoming them to drafting and expressing themselves with facility in the terminology of their profession. In addition, the student becomes used to working largely on his own and to being to some extent his own director of studies, thus acquiring a sense of responsibility and intellectual independence. Monographs should be set from the start of the training, there being, of course, certain subjects which lend themselves better than others to this type of work; generally speaking the introduction to library science, the history of books, the history of libraries, and administration are excellent fields to work.

A point to be borne in mind is that the scope and frequency of these tasks must be much less and the time allowance greater at the start than towards the end of training, just as the rigour of the work plan and the degree of latitude allowed in the correct application of the methods should be inversely proportioned to the stage reached: the more advanced the course, the greater the rigour and the less the latitude in application. The beginner must be allowed the benefit of a certain margin of imperfection allowing for his natural limitations in this difficult terrain, so that he will not be discouraged, by his first attempts, often not too successful.

If monograph writing is to yield good results, certain conditions are essential: careful selection by the professor of the works to be read; provision of general pointers for the making of the work plan; analysis and approval of the work plan by the professor before work on the monograph is begun and at least one review of the plan in the course of the work; freedom for the student to add, impugn or exclude sources; analysis and criticism of each effort by the professor before the whole class, after a brief statement by the student on its content and the problems of execution.

Bibliographical compilation should follow a course analogous to that of monographs. Both because students in the initial classes have had less training, and because of the poverty of the book collections in some libraries, it is advisable to begin with simple bibliographies requiring the reduction to a standard form of citations from existing bibliographies. Once students have mastered the problems of item description, they can then go on to primary bibliography, to the alternative modes of arranging the material (subject headings, Universal Decimal Classification, etc.), to the different types of index and the presentation of fully processed bibliographies complete from title page to index with notes for the printer and publisher.

As to the second aspect of the question, the value of this practice in terms of its usefulness in library work, it appears obvious that this is not the skill most used in a librarian's professional activities, particularly the more routine kinds. Those who benefit most from it are the reference assistants. But other aspects of the question need to be considered, connected principally with the librarians' moral duty of propounding, discussing and passing on ideas as an intellectual contribution to the advancement of their profession. Relatively few librarians write and if we exclude those who confine themselves to recording minor local experiments, often in dull and unimaginative terms, the output of worthwhile library science literature becomes very small. As Denison points out,[1] the subjects and the quality of the theses provide us with a very clear illustration of the poverty of library research. They are seldom more than monographs, and even the lengthiest, prepared in the best schools and usually published, are sometimes surprising in their lack of ideas and stimulating speculations and above all in the narrowness and extremely

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1. B. Denison, One magic word: research, op. cit.

limited character of the themes. The word thesis no longer has any of its real significance as a study which, while not carried to completion, is nevertheless a ferment, or the germ of future research worthy of the name.

For the reasons just outlined it is inadvisable for library schools where the profession is only now taking shape to make the award of the qualification conditional on the submission of a thesis. A written graduation exercise cannot be considered as a thesis even though it may be soundly prepared, well documented and well written. Unless, in addition, the paper contains at least one proposition for which arguments are advanced leading to an important, valid conclusion, it remains no more than a monograph. The factors determining whether the graduation assignments shall be theses or monographs will be the quality of the teaching, the possibilities of the special library available, the students' level of training and the time which the professors can devote to directing the work on the papers.

In any event, the provision of research training in library schools is of great importance. If the schools wish—as indeed they should—to attain to leadership of the profession, or at the least share it with the major libraries, they must concern themselves with developing an interest in research in their students and training them for it.

The seminar

Professor Nassif has described what a seminar is and rightly considers that this method should be used only in senior classes.[1] Danton, too, points out what distinguishes it from the discussion group and the form it should take.[2]

The pre-seminar, for teaching the seminar working technique, may not be necessary in library schools: if they give courses on the methodology of research, these probably include a study of the methodology to be used in seminars, apart from the fact that in other subjects, such as reference work and bibliography, students are taught a great deal of research and learn techniques which they can apply successfully in seminars. This means a great advantage to these schools, as their students will be ideally equipped for seminar work. Nevertheless, this type of work is not very widespread in countries where library schools are in the process of development, a fact which is attributable to the problems it raises for the faculty of the school, inasmuch as a seminar needs a director profoundly versed in its subject, highly expert in running seminars and with the time to prepare and run one. This combination of qualities is not often found among the professors of these library schools.

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[1] See page 57.

[2] J. P. Danton, *Education for librarianship*, op. cit., p. 28. The following can be consulted: G. S. Bonn, Notes about a course in government publications, *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6, 1965, p. 3-7, in which the author describes a seminar on government publications.

Didactic material

TEXTBOOKS AND COURSE SUMMARIES

The utility of textbooks in the teaching of library science is a proven fact but all countries complain about the shortage both of manuals and of anthologies. Some of the material published is of satisfactory quality but the supply is sparse, particularly in languages other than English.[1] For this reason, countries where English is either the native tongue or the adopted language of cultural exchanges are in a privileged position, since it is in English that the fullest, most advanced and, often, the best material is published. In some subjects (administration is a typical case) the adaptation needed before the material can be used in other countries is so extensive as to be beyond the student's capabilities and the professor has to specify minutely what is applicable in it and, in extreme cases, can only recommend it to advanced students with good powers of discrimination. In some countries, for instance Latin America, disregard of these exigencies has resulted in the production of lists of reading for students which are astonishingly remote from the realities of the library systems concerned and what is practicable for them; and all this without taking into account problems connected with the student's intellectual maturity and local idiosyncrasies. As a result, foreign publications are often scorned as ingenuous and puerile even when the experiments they describe or the principles they expound have been evolved in countries with an advanced and substantial library science.

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[1] One of the critical cases is that of Spanish-language textbooks, particularly for Spanish America, which, as a result of differences in technical doctrine, cannot always utilize the material produced in Spain. The situation has improved in recent years, but is far from satisfactory. See: C. V. Penna, Working tools and reference books in Spanish and Portuguese, in: *Development of public libraries in Latin America. São Paulo Conference*, Paris, 1953 (Unesco public library manuals, 5); C. Rovira, Estado actual de la bibliografía bibliotecológica en español y portugués, in: *Interim report*, p. 153-79, Mexico, 1960 (Seminario latinoamericano de bibliografía, documentación y canje de publicaciones, 1).

Attention has repeatedly been drawn to the lack of library science literature for countries where the subject is in course of development, but so far no remedy has been found. The result is that students get much of their schooling from the spoken word and some schools have even reached the point of adopting the lamentable practice of printing 'class notes' which, in the circumstances, turn into accepted manuals which often bowdlerize and distort the professor's ideas.

In the face of this situation there is nothing for the schools to do but to insist on the maximum amount of compulsory and recommended reading for their students and additionally to use all possible means of inducing their teaching staffs to put their own knowledge into book form and to turn out translations, more particularly of any review articles expounding new ideas or posing problems which will force students to think. International organizations can render great assistance in this matter. Unesco and the Organization of American States (OAS) have already made a considerable contribution and promise more. It would be immensely valuable if they were to co-ordinate their activities with those of the library schools to make both a modern and abundant literature available as soon as possible.

Finally, it would seem necessary to clarify the meaning of the word textbook. As used here it embraces both textbooks covering the whole range of a subject or the content of a programme, and writings dealing with particular aspects of library technique or theory which are tools for the librarian's task. Literature of the second type is unquestionably much more to be desired than that of the first category because it prevents the student getting a one-sided view and because it can deal with selected subjects more thoroughly. But the ordinary, more encyclopaedic type of manual, the textbook, is also useful, in the phase through which library education is passing in those countries where the profession is only nascent, inasmuch as it provides a basis, a foundation, on which the professor can build freely, and thereby make better use of his time.

Course summaries are useful, but sometimes more so to the professor than to the student. They present a number of disadvantages, the first being that subject-contents are in a state of constant change so that the summaries become out of date with remarkable rapidity. Secondly, if the professor is self-critical—as is to be hoped—he will be constantly amending his presentation so that the course summaries will be in a state of permanent flux. Thirdly, the summaries have many of the characteristics of the synopsis, and the latter is not always to be recommended, since a synthesis expressed in a series of bold statements is usually more apt to impoverish the student than to guide him. The most useful part of the course summary is its bibliographical list. As this is also subject to variation, a more economical and less hazardous solution would thus be to spend less time on drafting and issuing course summaries and more on preparing bibliographies and lists of basic and subsidiary reading, which would be handed to the student when the course opened, with a brief outline of the programme to be got through by way of foreword.

OTHER TEACHING MATERIALS

The possibility of using certain teaching aids to illustrate lessons is subject to various factors; their suitability for particular subjects in the curriculum; the availability of this type of material in the school or in other local institutes; the question of whether they can be afforded.

As regards suitability, it would seem evident that library science is not among the disciplines lending themselves to the large-scale use of teaching aids. In some subjects the need for such aids is much greater than in others, and is most evident for the history of books and the history of libraries. If bibliographical specimens, materials connected with book production and special materials are available for direct inspection or if the locality has ancient libraries which have survived almost intact over the centuries, these can be used to great advantage for illustrative purposes. Usually, however, no such situation obtains in the developing countries, in which case there is no question but that substitutes must be found and the most suitable are, of course, audio-visual materials in general and slides in particular.

Other specialities, such as administration, can also get useful help from illustrative material, especially on services in libraries, library systems, and more particularly on buildings, furniture and other library components. Slides, filmstrips and sound films have a special role here. A point to note, as regards administration, is the problem presented by the forms, guide cards, standard elements, etc., used in libraries. The view has been taken that the formation of a 'library science museum' is pointless in countries where library science is at an advanced stage, on the ground that no purpose is served by retaining reminders of an immediate past, which in not a few countries is still the present. But conversely it is worth while making collections of the material now employed in the advanced countries for use in other countries where library science is less advanced. It enables students and teachers to refresh their ideas, to apply critical standards and above all to set about its adaptation to the conditions in their own area and hence improve and modernize much of what is used in local libraries.

Audio-visual aids warrant special consideration. Broadly speaking, no great quantities are turned out for library science, which does not make extensive use of them. In some cases they may be very helpful, provided there is no attempt to substitute them for the teacher or for reading. They are merely teaching aids helping to make lessons better and meatier and the time is past when they were regarded as a panacea and served largely as a work-dodging device for the student.[1]

The sets of slides available commercially do not satisfy all the needs or desiderata of the many school courses. Gaps remain even in subjects like the history of books, for which many of the commercial collections, some of them really excellent, are usable. The same holds good as regards the history of libraries. In such cases, professors will have to choose texts and illustrations themselves so that the school can use them to make its own slides for the teaching set. As regards slides for other subjects, such as administration, some useful series have been produced, especially in the United States, which will need to be supplemented with other sets of special local relevance. The use of slides in reference studies to show students works not held in the school, or for class-room analysis of particular characteristics of such works (indexing techniques, bibliographical citation techniques, etc.) is definitely rather limited, and is undoubtedly even more so in other subjects like cataloguing and classification.

The foregoing is also true for filmstrips, though Unesco and the American Library Association have produced some interesting ones accompanied by good explanatory texts. Sound films—black and white or colour—are usually of much greater value and interest and are the most useful kind of audio-visual material, especially for exhibiting processes which cannot be shown in class (paper-making, modern printing machinery, binding, etc.), library services, information retrieval processes, regional library systems, etc.

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[1] The advantages and disadvantages of using auxiliary audio-visual equipment have been fully discussed in the didactic bibliography. The pros and cons of these aids from the point of view of teaching the history of books have been discussed by S. M. Fernández de Vidal, Audio-visual techniques and the history of books, *Unesco bulletin for libraries*, vol. XIX, 1965, p. 62-4.

All these types of material should be used. Employed with discretion and in conjunction with visits to libraries, printing works, workshops and other places of interest, they will be good adjuncts to the teaching process. But too much must not be expected of them. Seeing that the passivity of the students' role in formal classes has been severely criticized, there is no reason to offer too much scope for passivity on an equal or greater scale when audio-visual aids are used.

Methods most commonly used in the several subjects of library education

Below are given particulars of the methods and procedures most used or recommended for teaching the 'core' subjects of library science. For the preparation of this list the writer has taken into account the opinions and recommendations of the library school professors, the researchers who have made a study of the methodology of library science teaching and the round tables and congresses which have discussed it. Various procedures, not listed for this or that subject, can, of course, be used if the teacher finds them satisfactory. Their omission does not therefore mean that they should be rejected definitively for every professor fashions and constantly refashions his own forms for transmitting knowledge. The methods and procedures considered most appropriate for each case appear in italics.

INTRODUCTION TO LIBRARY SCIENCE

Class-room lessons, supplemented by required and optional reading.
Class discussion, reduced to minimum.
Written work and monographs: summaries of reading, descriptions of places visited, small bibliographical research projects.
Visits.

HISTORY OF BOOKS. HISTORY OF LIBRARIES

Class-room lessons, supplemented by required and optional reading.
Class discussion, very limited.

Practical work: handling representative specimens of different periods and techniques in the history of book manufacturing.

Written work and monographs: analysis of books and other materials, bibliographical research papers.

Visits to libraries with collections of old and special books and to exhibitions, museums, workshops.

Seminars, for senior classes only.

ADMINISTRATION

Class-room lessons, supplemented by required and optional reading.

Discussion classes and commentary of texts.

Interviews.

Round tables, etc., for senior classes only.

Visits.

Case studies.

In-service training.

BOOK SELECTION

Lessons on theory and practice, supplemented by required and optional reading.

Discussion classes and commentary of texts.

Round tables, etc., for senior classes only.

Practical work. Laboratories.

Problems.

Written work: book reviews and annotations, bibliographies, book selection plans.

REFERENCE STUDIES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

Class-room lessons, supplemented by required and optional reading.

Discussion classes and commentary of texts.

Interviews.

Visits.

Practical work, laboratories.

Problems.

In-service training: in very special cases and if an adequate library is available.

Written work: monographs on set themes requiring bibliographical research. Primary and secondary bibliographies. Analysis of selected reference works.

CATALOGUING AND CLASSIFICATION

Lectures on theory and practice, supplemented by required and optional reading.
Discussion classes.
Round tables, etc., for senior classes only.
Practical work. Laboratories.
In-service training.

RESEARCH METHODS

Class-room lessons supplemented by required and optional reading.
Discussion classes.
Round tables, etc.
Problems.
Written work: monographs and bibliographies.
Seminars.

Basic bibliography

This bibliography covers only general works on library education. Accordingly the footnotes are in most cases not repeated and no titles are given of works or articles dealing with partial aspects of the question. A great many data can be found in specialized bibliographies such as *Library literature*, *Library science abstracts* and the *Bibliografía bibliotecológica* of the Panamerican Union, to name only a few of the most widely known. Among the working documents of the Round Table, Part I, which met in Medellín (1963), there is one dealing specifically with the subject, namely E. Hart, *Educación profesional* (Working document, 2).

CHICAGO UNIVERSITY. GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL. ANNUAL CONFERENCE. 29. 1964. *The intellectual foundations of library education*, edited by D. R. Swanson. Chicago and London, University of Chicago Press, 1965.

——. LIBRARY CONFERENCE, 1948. *Education for librarianship*, ed. by B. Berelson. Chicago, American Library Association, 1949. (University of Chicago studies in library science.)

DANTON, J. P. *Education for librarianship; criticisms, dilemmas and proposals*. New York, Columbia University, School of Library Service, 1946.

——. *Education for librarianship*, Paris, Unesco, 1949. (Unesco public library manuals, 1.)

LANCOUR, H.; HARRISON, J. C. Education for librarianship abroad in selected countries. *Library trends*, vol. 12, no. 2, October 1963.

LEIGH, R. D. *The education of librarians*. In: A. I. Bryan, *The public librarian*, p. 297-425, New York, Columbia University Press, 1952.

——. (ed.). *Major problems in the education of librarians*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1954.

MUNN, R. *Conditions and trends in education for librarianship*. New York, Carnegie Corporation, 1936.

Plan de tres años para el estudio de la preparación de los bibliotecarios en la América Latina. Medellín, 1963-1965. Mesa de estudio de la primera parte, Medellín, 3-13 Nov., 1963. Documentos de trabajo. Medellín, Universidad de Antioquía, Escuela Interamericana de Bibliotecología, 1964.

——. *Resultados de la primera mesa de estudios* (preparados por C. V. Penna). Medellín, Universidad de Antioquía, Escuela Interamericana de Bibliotecología, 1965.

——. Anexo I: *Análisis de los informes nacionales sobre el estado actual de la profesiónbibliotecaria en América Latina*, por M. T. Sanz. Investigación dirigida por C. V. Penna. Medellín, Bedout, 1965.

——. *Mesa de estudio de la segunda parte, Medellín, 20-31 agosto 1964. Recomendaciones y documentos de trabajo.* Medellín, Universidad de Antioquía, Escuela Interamericana de Bibliotecología, 1965. (Seminars, short courses and meetings.)

——. *Mesa de estudios de la tercera parte.* (In the press.)

——. *Normas para las escuelas de bibliotecología; texto provisional.* Washington, Unión Panamericana, 1966. (Cuadernos bibliotecológicos, 29.)

REECE, E. J. *The task and training of librarians.* New York, King's Crown Press, 1949.

SHORES, L. (ed.). Comparative library education. *Journal of education for librarianship*, vol. 6, 1966, p. 231-317.

UNESCO. *Enquête sur la formation professionnelle des bibliothécaires et des documentalistes. Rapport final*, présenté par Mme S. Briet. Paris, 1950.

WHEELER, J. L. *Progress and problems in education for librarianship.* New York, Carnegie Corporation, 1946.

WHITE, C. M. *The origins of the American library School.* New York, The Scarecrow Press, 1961.

WILLIAMSON, C. C. *Training for library service.* New York, Carnegie Corporation, 1923.

Examples

Six examples of library methods and procedures have been prepared by library science teachers of wide experience and recognized ability. The examples are taken from actual practice and show, by the literature cited, to what extent these teachers manage to keep abreast of their particular specialities; it is also apparent, however, that in spite of all their efforts, they have not always been able to obtain access to sources which in more favourable circumstances they could have used to advantage in their work. Nevertheless, the fact that they have resisted the temptation to cite works which they do not know personally is a proof of their integrity and clearly demonstrates what a lot can be done in this field even in countries which do not have highly developed library services. The examples appear under the following headings.

'Mediaeval libraries in Western Europe'
'Books in France in the nineteenth century'
by Stella Maris Fernández de Vidal (professor, School of Librarianship, University of Buenos Aires).

'Author identification'
'Reclassification'
by Omar Lino Benítez (professor, School of Librarianship, University of Buenos Aires).

'The library building'
'Assembly of the book collection'
by Raquel Robés Masses (Education Documentation Centre, Unesco Regional Centre in the Western Hemisphere, Havana).

Mediaeval libraries in Western Europe

'Mediaeval libraries in Western Europe' is a theme of outstanding interest. Any study of it requires ready access to the basic literature and official or private libraries containing some items which can serve as specimens for study.

The study should take the form of a seminar and each participant should have a background of general education embodying knowledge of the historical events of the period and their significance, the influence of the religious movements, and the economic, social and cultural conditions of the Middle Ages. The seminar should be spread over one semester, meeting for two hours per week, so as to leave enough time for the location, consultation and full utilization of material.

The objectives would be as follows:

1. To give participants practice in the technique of research.
2. To teach the use of information sources.
3. To draft a paper containing individual accounts of research results and the conclusions reached.

The teacher's contribution to the seminar would take the following form: (a) to outline the role of the universities and the monasteries in the Middle Ages as custodians and repositories of ancient and mediaval culture; their influence on the history of education and the growing interest in books which was to lead, in the latter part of the Middle Ages, to the formation of important private collections; (b) to indicate to participants the different aspects of the problem and enable them to select the subject they wish to study; (c) in respect of each of the subjects concerned, to draw attention to the points of major interest and to the problems which may be involved; (d) to indicate the relevant general and special literature and, if necessary, the location of the material; (e) if circumstances permit and depending on where the seminars takes place. to organize visits to collections or institutions which may illustrate the theme; (f) to hear individual reports by participants.

The student should describe his conclusions and discuss them in meetings with the director of the seminar and the other participants; he should also prepare a monograph summing up these results. The professor should then give a summing up from which the following conclusions should emerge:

1. During the Middle Ages, the monasteries and universities were centres for the development and preservation of culture.
2. Two types of activity were pursued in the monasteries: the making of books in the *scriptorium* and their conservation in the library.
3. Books were produced for religious reasons.
4. Monastic libraries gave pride of place to religious works and, in some cases, a secondary place to Latin classics.
5. With the foundation of universities, the production of books was separated from their conservation.
6. The university library became a centre for the assembly of material for study by students and consultation by professors.
7. Guilds of lay copyists and other book craftsmen emerged, linked with the universities.
8. A new technique of copying and dissemination was established: the piece *(pecia)* and exemplar method.
9. The copyist became so important that his work was included in university regulations.
10. Books became relatively widespread.
11. Concurrently with the everyday 'reader's' texts, 'ornamental' volumes, the acme of luxury and refinement, began to be produced.
12. Private collections were built up by kings and great nobles.
13. Decline of monastic libraries.

RESEARCH THEMES

Books and libraries in the mediaeval monastery.
Books and libraries in Christian Spain.
Books and libraries in Moorish Spain.
Books and libraries in France.
Books and libraries in Italy.
University libraries.

By way of illustration, the outlines for the first two themes are given below.

Books and libraries in mediaeval monasteries

Origins of monasticism: evolution in East and West; St. Benedict and Cassiodorus; spread of the Benedictine Order.
Monastic reform: Cluniac and Cistercian Orders.
Monasteries and education: monastic, episcopal and parochial schools.
Scriptoria: Main *scriptoria* in the West; characteristics of the operations; rules; miniatures, schools, binding.
Libraries: prescripts of the monastic rule; constitution of stocks; library rules; collections; loans, stores, catalogues.
Decline of the monasteries.
Richard of Bury and the *Philobiblion.*

Books and libraries in Christian Spain

Origins of monasticism.
Monasticism in Spain under the Arian kings: main intellectual figures; influence of the East on Visigothic culture; main monasteries in the seventh century; Moslem invasion and destruction of the monasteries.
Monasticism after the Reconquest: triumph of the Benedictine Rule; monastic reform; main monasteries.
The monasteries and education.
Scriptoria: art of miniature; influences; schools; the *Beati.*
Libraries: provisions of the monastic rules; the librarian; collections, constitution of stock, loans; the decline.
Paper: its introduction; paper-manufacturing centres.
The libraries of the great nobles.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The bibliography listed below is not regarded as exhaustive, but is rather conceived in terms of the limitations that may exist in a locality where the cultural level is good but where the situation as regards bibliographical material and documentation is below the optimum level. Accordingly, it may be amplified or amended by the addition of other works, according to material available in the school's library and in other local book collections.[1]

Bohigas, P. *El libro español.* Barcelona, Gustavo Gili, 1962.
Cetto, A. M. *Miniatures du moyen âge.* Lausanne, Payot, 1950.
Domínguez Bordona, J. *La miniatura española.* Firenze, Pantheon, 1930.
——. *El arte de la miniatura española.* Madrid, Plutarco, 1932.

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[1] For visual material see the list of slides published in the article by Stella Maris Fernández de Vidal, Audio-visual techniques and the history of books, *Unesco bulletin for libraries,* vol. XIX, no. 2, March-April 1965, p. 65-7. Bulletins and catalogues of ancient and modern books and of book exhibitions are also useful.

FORMAGGIO, D; BASSO, C. *La miniatura*. Novara, Instituto Geográfico de Agostini, 1960.
GARCÍA VILLADA, E. *La vida de los escritores españoles medievales*. Madrid, 1926.
LECOY DE LA MARCHE, A. *Les manuscrits et la miniature*. Paris, Quantin (n.d.).
NORDENFALK, C. L'enluminure, In: A. Skira (ed.), *Le haut moyen âge du quatrième au onzième siècle*, p. 89-215, 1957.
PÉREZ DE URBEL, J. *Los monjes españoles en la edad media*. Madrid, Instituto de Valencia de Don Juan, 1933.
——. *San Isidoro de Sevilla*. Barcelona, Labor, 1945.
PORCHER, J. *L'enluminure française*. Paris, Arts et Métiers Graphiques, 1959.
RICHARD OF BURY. *Amor e historia del libro. Philobiblion*. Madrid, editado por M. Aguilar-Rollan, 1946.
SALMI, M. *L'enluminure italienne*. Milano, Electa, 1954.
SWEENEY, J. *Manuscritos irlandeses primitivos*. México, Buenos Aires, Hermes, 1965.
THOMPSON, J. W. *The mediaeval library*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1939.

Books in France in the nineteenth century

'Books in France in the nineteenth century' is a theme which can be dealt with as a sub-division of a course on the history of books, although it is is a second- or third-year subject, since it calls for intellectual maturity and a good general grounding. Alternatively, it may be made the theme of a specialization course. The time allotted to the subject should vary from a minimum of ten hours to whatever the professor considers necessary, depending on the interest and ability shown by the students, the questions they raise, and the development of any sub-themes.

The specific objectives would be as follows:

1. To give students an understanding of the close relationship between the nineteenth-century book as a physical object and as an exponent of the ideas of an age and the different trends in art and literature.
2. To point out the effects of political, economic and social developments and of industrial and technical progress on books, on book distribution and on libraries.
3. To show the importance of industrialization in the process of book publication, its possible adverse effects on quality and make-up, and the problems of distribution involved (opening up of new markets, etc.).
4. To lead the student to draw conclusions concerning the importance of the period's philosophical and social movements, their repercussion on the educational plane and consequentially on the establishment of public libraries.
5. To draw attention to the difficulties with which large-scale production of books and periodicals confronts the libraries, setting them new technical problems as regards cataloguing, classification, services, buildings, etc.

For the development of the theme, the expository approach should be used in conjunction with discussions, questions and answers and supplemented by all available means of illustration: slides, instructional filmstrips, reproductions of title pages, facsimiles, visits to public or private libraries with specimens of the period, to exhibitions of books or engravings showing the evolution of the graphic arts, to printmakers, to newspaper offices, etc.

To assess the results obtained, students may be required to answer a written questionnaire on basic points, to comment in detail on some set book or to write monographs or reports on visits.

Students should have studied sufficient history to be able to appreciate the cultural, social, philosophical and economic picture and should be acquainted with the artistic and literary trends of the period.

PLAN

Determination of the historical periods

Influences:

1. Development of education.
2. Artistic and cultural trends.
3. The industrial revolution in the domain of printing. Paper. Raw material, preparation of the pulp, manufacture. Typography: stereotypy, stereography. Press: mechanical press, mechanical inking, rotary press, lithographic press. Composition: Linotype, Monotype. Process engraving: raised surface blocks, flat blocks, intaglio blocks.

Engraving processes

Wood-engraving: renovation of the technique; peak period; the romantic vignette; illustrators.

Copper-plate engraving: renovation of the technique; peak period; engravers; main romatic works.

Etching: peak period; etchers.

Lithography: peak period; illustrators. Lithography and lithographs. Lithography and book production, albums.

Characteristics of books

Neoclassical period: typography; book aesthetics; format; binding; binders; representative works.

Romantic period: characteristics; typography; book aesthetics; format; illustrators; representative works; type of works; *cabinets de lecture*; books published in parts; publishers; binding.

Realist period: characteristics; typography; book aesthetics; illustrators; representative works; types of publication; characteristics of the period; publishers; binding.

Period antecedent to Franco-Prussian War: characteristics; typography; book aesthetics; illustration, binding. Mechanization; theorizers about books. Art editions; publishers.

Book trade

Book-trade regimen: political tutelage; pre-publication censorship. Creation of the Direction de l'Imprimerie et de la Librairie; printer's *brevet*; suppression of offences; legalized censorship; freedom of the press.

Production

Restoration: complete works, libraries; *cabinets de lecture*. July monarchy: cheap editions; pocket editions.

Documentation on of the book trade

The trade in the past: *Manuel du libraire et de l'amateur de livres*, by Charles Brunet; *La France littéraire*, by Quérard; *Bulletin du bibliophile*, by Techener.
The modern trade: *Bibliographie de la France*; *Annuaire de l'imprimerie et de la librairie de l'Empire; Annuaire de l'imprimerie et de la librairie française; La littérature contemporaine.*

Transformation of commercial methods

Distribution of output

Literary property: regulation of the right; international protection of authors' copyright; pirating of works.

Bibliophiles societies: provincial; Parisian.

Journalism

Developments under the Empire, the Restoration, the July monarchy, the Third Republic.
Characteristics of the press: printings; finance; advertisements; methods of attracting the public; causes of expansion.
Progress of information facilities: news agencies.
Appearance of modern machinery.
Appearance of illustrated magazines.
Posters: evolution; main figures.

MONOGRAPHS

Some themes for monographs: Honoré Daumier; Development of bibliophily in the nineteenth century; Gustave Doré; Evolution of the graphic arts, etc.
Theme chosen: Honoré Daumier.

Plan

1. Situation of the subject in his historical and social context.
2. Life story.
3. Artistic work.
4. Characteristics of his work; themes it embraces; analysis of principal works.
5. His significance as an artist and as an exponent of the problems of his age.
6. Sources consulted.

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The bibliography given below is not exhaustive but demonstrates rather the limitations that may be imposed by inadequate bibliographical material and documentation even when the cultural level is good. Accordingly it may be amplified or amended by the addition of other works, depending upon what is available in the school library or in other local collections.[1]

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(b) Secondary

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[1] For audio-visual material see the list of slides given in the article by Stella Maris Fernández de Vidal, Audio-visual techniques and the history of books, *Unesco bulletin for libraries*, vol. XIX, no. 2, March-April 1965, p. 65-7. Bulletins and catalogues of ancient and modern books and of book exhibitions are also useful.

Author identification

The procedure for developing this theme should by class-room lectures and practical work.

LEVEL AND TIME FOR DEVELOPMENT

This theme should be dealt with in an initial course on cataloguing and in full awareness that author identification necessitates a thorough knowledge of the reference books and sources. It is judged necessary, for the purposes of the practical classes, to include in the cataloguing course a summary explanation of how to handle biographical sources. The exhaustive study of the reference works should be provided for in the course on reference work, bibliography, or whatever the subject is called in different curricula.

Three practical classes are considered necessary.

ARGUMENT

The view is widely held that cataloguing as a subject should be dealt with theoretically as well as practically [10].[1] All the critiques on the subject are at one in drawing attention to the tendency to emphasize technique or procedure over theory [12, 17, 18].

Administrators, says Kilpatrick [7], want the technical processing staff to know why they do what they do. Much of the 'how' of library work is learnt by experience, but the 'why' is an attitude characteristic of the true professional.

There has been debate on the purposes to be served by a library catalogue. These have varied over the years and authorities do not always agree on their respective importance or degree of priority; all of which is reflected in the different cataloguing codes. Accordingly, in giving the cataloguing course, the professor must make a special point of explaining the principles involved so that the student may understand the 'why' of the norms.

In planning his course it is important for the professor, while keeping theory well to the fore, not to neglect the practical aspect; *in medio stat virtus*, for as Wheeler says [17], 'students need to learn how to do many of these things by actually doing them because they will shortly be called upon to supervise the doing of them by others'.

PROCEDURE

Accepting the principle that cataloguing should be taught from the theoretical as well as the practical angle, the basis of the procedure is explanation by the professor, in the theoretical class, in terms of the principles of cataloguing and the purposes a library catalogue should serve, of the necessity or otherwise of preparing a name authority catalogue, explaining how this should be done in different sets of circumstances.

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[1] Figures in brackets refer to the bibliography on page 130.

It is essential that there be close co-ordination between the professor in charge of the course and his assistants, the 'demonstrators' supervising the practical work to avoid discrepancies between theory and practice. As far as possible the practical work should follow immediately after the theory classes.

The demonstrators should submit an annual plan for the professor's consideration. Norms or directives are needed regulating the lines on which they are to work as regards the use of blanks and forms, the manner of correcting and marking these and the procedure and time limits for their return by students. At the start of each class series the assistant will briefly explain the nature of the assignment. The problems to be solved by the students will be selected so as to form a series of increasing difficulty.

It is assumed that the school has an adequately equipped and organized laboratory.

EXECUTION

Practical work carried out in the laboratory under the demonstrator's supervision.

Class 1. Preparing the authority card of an individual author, indicating sources consulted and necessary references. Preparing the authority card of an individual collaborator.

The demonstrator will supply the necessary repertories and set the number of cards to be completed by the student. In this first course, the authors selected should be nationals of the country where the student is working.

Class 2. Preparing an authority card for main and/or secondary authors of various nationalities, indicating sources consulted and necessary references.

Making reference cards for each of them.

The demonstrator will supply repertories so chosen as to show the name of the author to be identified written in a variety of ways and with differing birth and/or death entries.

Class 3. Preparing an authority card for an anonymous work, in which there are means of identifying the author.

The assistant will provide appropriate repertories and will illustrate the procedure by a specimen case which will be dealt with jointly under his supervision.

Specimen case: identification of the author of *El último día de un reo de muerte*, the title-page and first ten pages of the book being missing. The group reads the preface and on page LXII finds a footnote reading: 'Recuerde que el autor escribió estas lineas en marzo de 1832. N. del T.' (Be it remembered that these lines were written in March 1832. Translator's note).

This clue indicates that the book was not originally written in Spanish. In addition its contents, which are a plea against capital punishment and the use of the guillotine, indicate that it may have been written in France.

Considering further that it may be an anonymous work, its probable title in French, *Dernier jour d'un condamné à mort*, is looked up in Barbier's *Dictionnaire des ouvrages anonymes*, 3rd ed. The following entry is found: '*Dernier (Le) jour d'un condamné* (par Victor Hugo). Paris, C. Gosselin, 1829, in-12', and a note of the subsequent editions published under the author's name.

Pursuing the same line of reasoning, the French title is looked up in the *Nouveau Larousse illustré*, which gives the information that the author is indeed Victor Hugo. This reference book also mentions another work under the same title, which might give rise to doubt, but this is removed on checking that under the first title—Victor Hugo's work—there is a brief note of the content, which tallies with that of the book which is the subject of the search.

Another line of approach—the group knowing of the existence of Dionisio Hidalgo's *Diccionario general de bibliografía española*, and that it is arranged in alphabetical order of titles—is to consult that work. Volume I under *El*, contains the entry: '*El último día de un reo de muerte*, por Victor Hugo. Madrid, 1840. Libr. de Boix, in-16.'

Continuing the search under the Spanish title the same information is located in Gonzalez Porto Bompiani's *Diccionario literario de obras y personajes de todos los tiempos y de todos los países*.

As the last step in identifying the different editions of the original work, it is ascertained that the first two French editions were published without mentioning the author's name, and that the note appearing in the work to be catalogued and dated 1832 refers to the fifth French edition, according to the catalogue of the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris.

To be able to work out complete data for the work used as an example, the search would have to be continued in a variety or repertories for the different editions existing in Spanish. As this has no bearing on the problem it was sought to solve, the search is carried no further.

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Reclassification

THEME

The theme of reclassification is closely linked with that of recataloguing and further, the operation will differ according to the library where it is performed. In this paper it is treated in terms of the formal lesson procedure, with outlines of the points the professor must keep in mind.

LEVEL OF TEACHING AND TIME REQUIRED

Given that the theme lends itself to a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of different types of catalogue, an indication must be given of the procedure for and stages in the reclassification process: that the latter involves problems not specific to itself such as costing the operation and the need to estimate the requirements in personnel and special equipment to put through a reclassification plan; that in addition, for decision-making purposes, it presupposes a knowledge of the advantages and disadvantages of different classification systems. It is reckoned that the theme should figure in an advanced course on classification and is likely to require a minimum of four classes.

ARGUMENT

Even in countries with long experience of library problems and with scientifically organized libraries, there are differences between the various systems which sometimes make reclassification necessary; the problem is the more acute in countries where library organization is not satisfactory. In proportion as library schools turn out trained men and women, the latter will necessarly force through changes in the libraries, where problems of reclassification will arise in steadily growing numbers. On these grounds it is considered important to include this theme in an advanced course to give the librarians of the future basic knowledge essential to them.

PROCEDURE

Since the literature on the theme is not extensive in any case and many of these works discuss solutions adopted in particular libraries and mutually discrepant, the professor will need to draw conclusions permitting him to generalize and above all adapt the possible solutions to the needs and actualities of libraries in the country or zone of influence of the library school.

Without encroaching on the theory lessons, the professor can suggest different topics related to the problem as possible themes for class discussions between professor and students.

EXECUTION

Class 1

Reclassification. Definition: total and partial reclassification.
Reasons for reclassification:
- Need to consolidate several separate catalogues.
- Advisability of a complete review of all subject headings and, if called for, decision to use another list.
- Need to group the books according to a single system.
- Obsolescence of the system in use and need to employ a classification scheme corresponding to the needs of the library.
- The circumstance of the library's joining a centralized or co-operative cataloguing scheme.

Difficulties to be taken into consideration:
- Expenditure which the plan would require.
- Space and furnishing considerations. Problems of future expansion.
- Interruption of normal service.

Class 2

Routine of the process to be followed. Discussion of each stage.
Policy to be followed. Assignment of priorities.

Class 3

Study of the costs of the process.
Needs in personnel.
Needs in material.
Estimating methods.
Advantages of applying the plan:
- Increase in the catalogue's usefulness.
- Greater facility for consulting books held.
- Quicker and more efficient service.

Class 4

The teacher may assign some of the topics treated in class to groups of students to be examined in reference to a particular library in need of reclassification with a view to class discussion of the possible solutions.

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The library building

Site. Style. Facilities and capacity. Departments and offices. Lighting and ventilation. Furniture and equipment.

VALUE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE THEME

The knowledge acquired by students of librarianship on buildings and equipment for libraries will most certainly be put to the proof at some time in their professional life. Every librarian has the opportunity, if only once, of intervening or giving advice in connexion with the construction, alteration or extension of a library building or the conversion of premises not built for use as a library. Accordingly it is of the utmost value for the future librarian to acquire in his training the necessary knowledge and the maximum experience possible so as to be able to guide or advise in a matter which is of vital importance to library services.

The increasingly obvious need for a good grounding in this subject is a matter of concern to librarians and professors of librarianship alike and should be catered for in the schemes of study of library schools, as D. E. Thompson argues in an article published in the *Library journal*. He writes: 'Every library school graduate should have more contact in library school with buildings and equipment than is now generally available.'[1]

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[1] D. E. Thompson, Education for building, *Library journal*, vol. 90, 1965, p. 5157-60.

METHOD

This situation can be remedied by having students prepare a library building project and at university level it can be approached in two ways: (a) as a final application of knowledge acquired from the professor in various classes, amplified by information obtained by the students from set reading and other didactic aids and from outside sources (interviews with specialists, visits to libraries, etc.); and (b) on the basis of a survey and study of the problems posed by the building of a particular type of library, carried out by the students, so that they can discover for themselves the general principles needed for elaborating the construction programme, the plans of the building, the furnishing scheme, etc.

The professor should let the students do the work for themselves but act as guide and counsellor during the first three stages of the plan as given below and should intervene directly as critic and 'chairman' in the final assessment.

Probable time: two weeks (three classes per week).

PURPOSE

The main purpose is to ensure that the students who are the librarians of the future are familiar with the problems of building libraries and to help them acquire the experience essential for effective assumption of the functions, duties and obligations which will fall to them in the planning team.[1]

Obviously the knowledge students acquire in this course on planning library buildings will not, and is not designed to, qualify them to replace an architect, who will always be needed; but it will undoubtedly be of great assistance where (as is frequently the case) they lack the resources of a planning team as described by Galvin and Van Buren.

PLAN

Assignment or object

To prepare a project for a specified type of library building—public library (central or branch), school library, university library, etc.—taking into account the community, institution or group to be served, its character, number of inhabitants or students, probable number of readers, etc.

Action to be taken. (a) Students to form their own working groups of six to ten members; (b) each group to choose by agreement the type of library to which its project will relate and to distribute the various aspects for examination among its members.

Preparatory phase

This phase covers the collection of all data necessary for the execution of the chosen project and should include the following items: study of requirements according to the type of library chosen and the nature of its probable users; decision on the community or institution where the library is to be installed; selection of the site; study of the community or institution which the library is to serve, as a starting-point for the construction of a building to fit existing requirements with regard to capacity, convenience and service; possibility of future extension; study of requirements in furniture and equipment, the qualities required, characteristics, etc.; study of how to decorate the library; type of construction, materials, etc., cost estimates in respect of furniture and equipment.

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[1] H. R. Galvin and M. Van Buren, *The small public library building*, p. 32. Paris, Unesco, 1959, (Unesco public library manuals, 10).

Action to be taken. Study of what suitable materials are available on the market, with advice from technicians and experts. Consultation with architects and with lighting and ventilation contractors, suppliers of library and office equipment, interior decorating firms, etc. Study of plans of other libraries; visits to modern libraries and inquiries as to the views of the staffs; study of filmstrips;[1] consultation of technical literature, catalogues, etc. During this phase and the following one, groups should seek to secure the co-operation of professors and advanced students of architecture and to make use of the resources of specialist university libraries.

Execution

After completing the phase of documentation and investigation and assessment of the problems posed by the project, each group to prepare its construction programme in writing, setting out the aims pursued, the scope of the project, the functional character of the building and the material requisites of the library which the project deals with, the offices it should have, their requisites and interrelations, etc. The characteristics of the building *per se* and the type and nature of the furniture and equipment should also be discussed. All this work should be based on the results secured from the previous phase.

Action to be taken. As in the previous phase, the groups can carry out the drafting work with the assistance and co-operation of professors and final year students of architecture.

Assessment or evaluation of results

In this phase the professor and students should make a critical assessment of the schemes proposed. Each project should be analysed separately, its good points and its mistakes pointed out and better answers suggested for those problems and requirements where a team missed its mark. The critiques of projects should cover their substance and determine whether or not it is suitable for the type of library and the community in question; they should also cover the clarity and presentation of the plans and their correspondence with the construction programme.

Action to be taken. This phase and the project as a whole should conclude with an exhibition of the projects of all the groups, mounted by the students under the direction of the professor.

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[1] *University library buildings*, Paris, Unesco, 1962. Filmstrip, 40 frames (photographs and plans).

Methods used. Conversation, discussion, literature search, group papers and laboratory work, demonstration.

Auxiliary media. Textbooks, monographs, catalogues, articles in journals and other publications and other relevant materials.

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Assembly of the book collection

Function and aims of book selection in libraries. Factors in and bases for selection. Aids to book selection and other materials. Evaluation of books: content and make-up.

VALUE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE THEME

This subject has been chosen because of its fundamental importance. While a functional building with suitable furnishing and equipment is needed for the proper functioning of a library, assembling book collections corresponding to the needs of the community and of its individual members is vital if the library is to achieve its objects.

Probable time needed: three weeks (three classes per week).

OBJECTIVES

The essential purpose is to train library students for the work of book selection in a library, by teaching them the value of a well-chosen collection comprising all material useful for information and recreation, and the vital importance of this for a good library service; instructing them in the scientific and technical bases of selection and in the utilization of all the reference books and resources which may be of assistance in this work; and giving them the necessary opportunities for direct evaluation work and some practical experience of selection in actual working conditions.

DEVELOPMENT

1. Initial proceeding

(a) *Motivation*. Introduction of the subject and discussion with students on the value of a library's selection of books. Appeal to students' own experience as readers of the usefulness of the selection of books in various types of libraries (school libraries, children's libraries, public libraries, special libraries) to arrive at a definition of the importance and function of book selection.

(b) *Formulation*. Exposition of subject. It will be divided into sections each comprising a number of questions which can be stated by the professor and thrashed out in class discussions with the students on the basis of what they have been taught, their previous experience and their set reading.

Function of book selection in libraries

(a) *Function and purpose of book selection*. Place of selection in the work of the library, significance and value of selection for the librarian. How a collection is assembled to suit the community, the type of library and the various categories of reader: what subjects it should cover and the balance between them; consideration for interests of adults, children, adolescents, specialists, etc.; 'non-book' material and its increasing value as a source of information.

(b) *Recommended selection procedure: McColvin's analysis of its various phases*. Identification of the demand. Analysis of its nature. Evaluation of its intrinsic importance. Estimation of its volume. Consideration of range of contents. Study of resources already held in relation to the demand. Estimation of additional subject coverage needed. Identification of books providing this additional information. Acquisition of the material.

(c) *Duties of the librarian as book selector*. Book selection: the province of the librarian and his assistants. The selector and his task: personal qualities needed and capacity for the work. Organization of the selection operation: need for and advisability of planning.

Basic reading[1]

DRURY, *Book selection*, p. 1-3; 291; 336-45.
LASSO, *Manual de biblioteconomía*, p. 213-18.
——, *La selección de libros*, p. 5-8.
Manual de bibliotecología para bibliotecas populares, p. 65-70; 76 and 77.
PEÑALOSA, *La selección y adquisición de libros*, chap. 1, p. 15-32.

Factors and bases of selection

(a) *Factors in selection.* Books and professional knowledge of books: source references for selection and the books themselves. The public and the demand: capacity of the selector for ascertaining and appreciating the wishes and needs of readers; study of the library public and probable readers. The library's resources and the necessity of knowing them: book stock, economic resources, human resources.

(b) *Criteria for selection: on what consideration does the selector decide whether a book will be useful in his library?* Public demand. Extent to which the book is likely to be used. The library's resources. Content of the book, considered as a contribution to knowledge or literature. The book considered as a physical object.

(c) *The demand factor in selection.* Practical determination of demand in public libraries: direct contact with readers in the library (departments where such contacts are made) and outside it (relations with directors and members of institutions and organizations in the community); community study in the library (records indicative of demand) and outside it (study of demand by investigations in the community: inquiries and surveys). Libraries in educational establishments: demand there. Specialized libraries: their problems as regards demand. The programme of acquisitions arising from the study of demand.

(d) *The probable book-use factor in selection: variations according to type of reader, type of book and type of library.* Types of reader: variety of forms and degrees of library use by readers; possible criteria of selection (readers as individuals or as members of specific groups; library services and departments). Types of book: study of the different types; requirements to be met for selection (reference books; official publications; publications of learned societies or academic bodies; publications of international organizations; newspapers and journals; children's books; books in other languages, classical and modern; books for the blind). Types of library: public libraries, their selection problems; libraries in educational establishments, selection conditioned by the character of the libraries at each level of education and by the field of specialization; libraries in hospitals and social rehabilitation institutions.

(e) *The resources factor in selection.* Book resources; the library's book stocks: main or basic collection, specialities. Financial resources: the budget allocation consideration. Human resources; staff (librarian's assistants in book selection; knowledge of the capabilities, interests and skills of the staff members). Resources of other libraries: aggregation and co-operative use of the library resources of a whole region, influence on selection; inter-library loans; agreements to avoid duplication of effort and to economize resources.

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[1] Full particulars of the works referred to in each section are given in the bibliography at the end of this example, and also of other works for use as additional reading.

(f) *Checking the validity of selections. Errors in selection.* Review of the books to check their usefulness. Wrong selections: probable causes. Reconsideration of works for which there has not been the demand expected.

Basic reading

DRURY, *Book selection*, p. 3-25; 29-56; 62-73.
MCCOLVIN, *Public library services for children*, chaps. VII, VIII and IX, p. 63-80.
MOSHIER, *The small public library*, p. 44-56.
PEÑALOSA, *La selección y adquisición de libros*, p. 22-33.

Aids to selection

(a) *Aids to selection of books and pamphlets.* Printed aids: selective (general and special selective bibliographies, book reviews, accession lists of special libraries, etc.); national bibliographies (their use in selection); catalogues, announcements and reviews of publishing firms; catalogues and lists of private collections for sale. Advice from organizations and individuals: international, national and foreign organizations; specialists and scholars as consultants. Other aids: contacts with publishers, booksellers and subscription agents, etc. Aids to selection of periodicals and journals: national and foreign repertories.

(b) *Aids to selection of other material.* Maps: special bibliographies; publishers' catalogues, catalogues of cartographic institutes and departments, geographical societies, etc. Art reproductions and plates: catalogues and lists of specialized organizations, art galleries, museums and commercial publishers; books on art and art journals. Music: special lists and journals; record catalogues. Films or filmstrips; slides: lists of specialized organizations; catalogues of film institutes and of audio-visual materials; departments of ministries of education, health, agriculture, etc.; manufacturers of such materials.

Basic reading

DRURY, *Book selection*, p. 250-90.
LASSO, *Manual de biblioteconomía*, p. 229-44.
PEÑALOSA, *La selección y adquisición de libros*, chap. 4, p. 93-113.

Evaluation of books: content and make-up

(a) *Intrinsic value of a book. Examination of content: points to be considered.* Qualifications of the author: culture, experience, specialization in subject of work. Theme: coverage, form, argument. Composition and style: aptness, clarity, interest, pleasantness; literary value: originality, beauty, etc. Sources of the work: background information about the author; material used; personal contribution. Parts of book: title-page and its particulars; chapter index; preface, introduction; notes; supplements and appendixes; bibliographies; glossaries; subject index, etc. Their importance in selecting a book.

(b) *Extrinsic value of the book.* Characteristics: format; binding; materials, stitching, lettering; paper, printing, type, margins, cover and title-page, illustrations (their aptness, utility and beauty). Their importance in selecting books from the reader's and the library's standpoints.

Basic reading

CARLSON, *The choice of editions*, p. 31-57.
DRURY, *Book selection*, p. 76-199; 200-49.
LASSO, *Manual de biblioteconomía*, p. 221-49.
PEÑALOSA, *La selección y adquisición de libros*, chaps. 2 and 3, p. 35-91.

(c) Formation of study and working groups for literature searches, execution of practical work of evaluation; direct observation of and participation in selection work in a library.

2. Final activities

To conclude their study of this item and evaluate results, various themes are suggested below which students can develop either individually or in working groups; the latter procedure would be preferable for the more complex. What they submit can either be given marks, at the professor's discretion, or as attainment tests independent of these for qualification in the subject. The professor can choose the themes he considers the most appropriate or the best fitted to the special circumstances and to the available resources and possibilities.

1. Planning a survey of a specified community, indicating sources of information to be considered and method to be used. Drafting of questionnaires for house-to-house survey. Drafting of plan of final report, indicating aspects to be included.
2. Evaluation exercises on books on different subjects and for different types of readers. Each analysis to include: entry of book (author, title, imprint, pagination); content (study of work, including particulars and qualifications of author; theme: coverage, treatment, argument, composition and style; special elements); make-up (physical characteristics: format, binding, paper, printing, illustrations); student's opinion (whether to acquire the book or not; for what type of reader or library, etc.).
3. Preparation of a list of one hundred books for a specified type of library or

reader (e.g., for a public library, a school or university library; for housewives, musicians, shopkeepers, children aged 8-12, adolescents aged 14-18, etc.).

4. Observation and practical work. May include: visit to a book selection and acquisition department so that students may observe the work and prepare a report on it; participation in the regular activities of the department in order to acquire a thorough knowledge of selection aids, working methods, etc., and obtain some practice in actual working conditions.

Methods used: conversation, discussion, exposition; problems; study and literature searches; practical exercises.

Aids: manuals, repertories and other publications listed in the bibliography for the unit; assembly of works on different subjects and for different ages and purposes, for evaluation by the students. Here the professor should include some recent works which have not appeared in initial repertories in order to stimulate the students' independent judgement.

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Methods of teaching librarianship, with an introductory study by Ricardo Nassif. Paris, Unesco, 1969.

143 p. (Unesco manuals for librairies, 16)

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I. Library science—study and teaching. II. Nassif, Ricardo. III. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. IV. Series. V. Title

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